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HOW TO REMEMBER HISTORY



JOSEPH A. HOFMANN,

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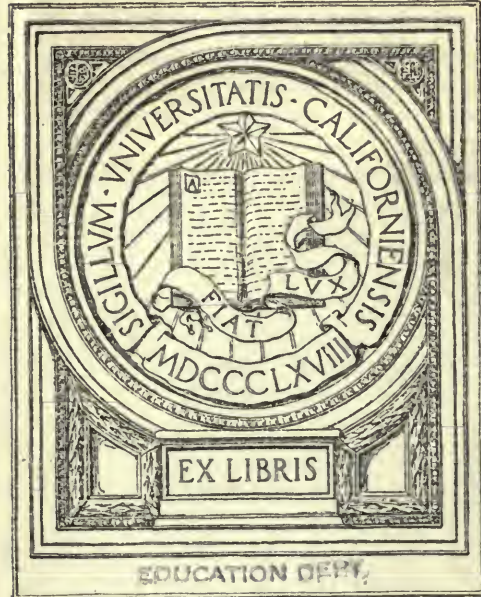
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IN MEMORIAM

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HOW TO REMEMBER HISTORY.

A METHOD OF MEMORIZING DATES, WITH
A SUMMARY OF THE MOST IMPORTANT
EVENTS OF THE SIXTEENTH, SEVENTEENTH,
EIGHTEENTH, AND NINETEENTH CENTURIES.

FOR THE USE OF SCHOOLS AND PRIVATE STUDENTS.

BY

VIRGINIA CONSER SHAFFER,

FORMERLY TEACHER OF HISTORY IN THE MARYLAND STATE NORMAL SCHOOL.

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J. B. LIPPINCOTT COMPANY.

1890.

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EDUCATION DEPT.



PREFACE.

SOME years ago I was conducting a Teachers' Institute in Washington County, Maryland, when one of the teachers in attendance proposed to explain his method of teaching history in connection with chronology. The explanation was given at some length, and a class of children who had been taught after this method was introduced and made a very creditable exhibition of their attainments. I was so much pleased with the system that I determined to try it in the State Normal School, in which the author of this volume was at that time the teacher of history. The experiment was eminently successful and the method was permanently continued. On Miss Conser's leaving the State Normal School I requested her, as a parting contribution to the profession of which she had been for years a distinguished ornament, to prepare an outline of history and chronology on this plan for publication. The period from the eleventh to the nineteenth century, inclusive, was at first selected; but, as it proved too bulky for an initiatory volume, the illustration was confined to the sixteenth, seventeenth, eighteenth, and nineteenth centuries.

There is nothing new about the principle. Miss Elizabeth P. Peabody used it many years ago in a school history of the United States, and she borrowed it from a German, Bem, I believe. But many changes of detail and plan have been made, which adapt it more completely to class use. Still better than any claim to novelty or originality is the fact that it has been taught, from manuscript, year after year, in our school, and always with good results. It may be alleged that the success was due to the teacher rather than to the system; but from the Normal School the system spread into hundreds of country schools, and was attended with gratifying, if not always brilliant, success. So far as I know, no teacher who has tried it has ever voluntarily given it up. I commend this little book, therefore, to my fellow-teachers throughout the United States as eminently deserving of a fair and patient trial, and in the assured conviction that those who give it such a trial will not be disappointed.

M. A. NEWELL,

*Principal of the Maryland State Normal School
and State Superintendent of Public Instruction.*

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20. The American Civil War. Emancipation Proclamation. Vicksburg. Gettysburg. Sherman's March. Appomattox. Abraham Lincoln.	
21. The Spanish Revolution.	
22. The Central Pacific Railroad. Overland Route to the Pacific.	
23. The Franco-Prussian War. Sedan. Siege of Paris. Napoleon III.	
24. The Mont Cenis Tunnel.	
25. The Chicago Fire.	
26. The Alabama Claims.	
27. African Exploration. Livingstone.	
28. The Centennial of American Independence.	

STANDARD WORKS OF REFERENCE.

Abbott	History of the Franco-Prussian War	<i>Ab. Fran.-Prus. War.</i>
Adams	Great Campaigns in Europe	<i>Ad. Cam. Eu.</i>
Alison	History of Europe	<i>Al. E.</i>
Baird	Rise of the Huguenots of France	<i>Baird, Hugue.</i>
Bancroft	History of the United States	<i>Ban. U. S.</i>
Blochwitz	History of Turkey	<i>Bloch. T.</i>
Bright	English History	<i>Bright, Eng.</i>
Bryant	History of the United States	<i>Bry. U. S.</i>
Buckle	History of Civilization in England	<i>Buck. Eng.</i>
Butler	Land of the Veda	<i>But. Veda.</i>
Carlyle	Life of Frederick the Great	<i>Car. Fred.</i>
Carlyle	History of the French Revolution	<i>Car. Fr. Rev.</i>
Carlyle	Letters and Speeches of Oliver Cromwell	<i>Car. Crom.</i>
Creasy	The Ottoman Turks	<i>Creas. Ot. T.</i>
D'Aubigné	History of the Reformation	<i>D'Aub. Ref.</i>
Dunham	History of Denmark, Norway, and Sweden. (Lardner's Cyclopædia)	<i>Lard. Cy., Den., Nor., Swed.</i>
Dunham	History of Spain and Portugal. (Lardner's Cyclopædia)	<i>Lard. Cy., Spain and Port.</i>
Dunham	History of Poland. (Lardner's Cyclopædia)	<i>Lard. Cy., Pol.</i>
Dyer	History of Modern Europe	<i>Dy. Mod. E.</i>
Evelyn	Memoirs	<i>Eve. Mem.</i>
Finlay	History of the Greek Revolution	<i>Fin. Gr. Rev.</i>
Froude	History of England	<i>Froude, Eng.</i>
Fyffe	History of Modern Europe	<i>Fyffe, Mod. E.</i>
Gardner	The Thirty Years' War	<i>Gard. Thirty Yrs. War.</i>
Grant	The Sepoy War	<i>Grant, Sep. War.</i>
Greeley	The American Conflict	<i>Greel. Am. Con.</i>
Green	A Short History of the English People	<i>Green, Eng.</i>
Greville	Memoirs of Reigns of George IV. and William IV.	<i>Grev. Mem.</i>
Guest	Lectures on English History	<i>Guest, Eng.</i>
Guizot	History of France	<i>Guiz. France.</i>
Hume	History of England	<i>Hume, Eng.</i>
Irving	Life of Washington	<i>Irv. Wash.</i>
Irving	Knickerbocker History of New York	<i>Irv. Knick. N. Y.</i>
James	Life of Louis XIV.	<i>James, Louis XIV.</i>
Jones	Modern Europe (continuation of Russell's)	<i>Jones, Mod. E.</i>
Kelly	History of Russia	<i>Kel. Rus.</i>
La Chapelle	The War in 1870	<i>La Chap. War in 1870.</i>
Lanfrey	Life of Napoleon I.	<i>Lan. Nap. I.</i>
Lecky	England in the Eighteenth Century	<i>Leck. Eng.</i>
Lewes	Life of Goethe	<i>Lew. Goethe.</i>
Lingard	History of England	<i>Ling. Eng.</i>
Livingstone	Last Journals	<i>Liv. Jour.</i>

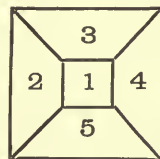
Lockhart	Life of Scott	<i>Lock. Scott.</i>
Lossing	History of the United States. (Centennial Edition)	<i>Loss. U. S.</i>
Macaulay	History of England	<i>Mac. Eng.</i>
Macaulay	Miscellaneous Essays	<i>Mac. Es.</i>
Mahon	History of England	<i>Mah. Eng.</i>
McCarthy	A History of our Own Times	<i>McCar. Own Times.</i>
Morris	The Age of Anne	<i>Mor. Anne.</i>
Morris	The French Revolution	<i>Mor. Fr. Rev.</i>
Motley	The Rise of the Dutch Republic	<i>Mot. D. Rep.</i>
Motley	The United Netherlands	<i>Mot. Neth.</i>
Nordhoff	California	<i>Nord. Cal.</i>
Pepys	Memoirs	<i>Pep. Mem.</i>
Prescott	Life of Charles V.	<i>Pres. Chas. V.</i>
Prescott	Life of Philip II.	<i>Pres. Phil. II.</i>
Prescott	Conquest of Mexico	<i>Pres. Mex.</i>
Prime	Life of Samuel F. B. Morse	<i>Prime, Morse.</i>
Probyn	Essays on Italy, Ireland, and the United States	<i>Prob. Es.</i>
Ridpath	History of the United States	<i>Rid. U. S.</i>
Robertson	History of America	<i>Rob. Am.</i>
Robertson	Reign of Charles V.	<i>Rob. Chas. V.</i>
Russell	Modern Europe	<i>Rus. Mod. E.</i>
Sayer	History of Gibraltar	<i>Say. Gib.</i>
Seebohm	History of the Protestant Reformation	<i>See. Prot. Ref.</i>
Southey	Life of Nelson	<i>South. Nel.</i>
Thiers	History of the French Revolution	<i>Thiers, Fr. Rev.</i>
Van Laun	The French Revolutionary Epoch	<i>Van Laun, Fr. Rev. Ep.</i>
Voltaire	Life of Charles XII. of Sweden	<i>Volt. Chas. XII.</i>
White	History of France	<i>White, France.</i>
White	Massacre of St. Bartholomew	<i>White, St. Bart.</i>
Pictorial History of England		<i>Pict. Eng.</i>
The Annual Register		<i>An. Reg.</i>
Tribunal of Arbitration at Geneva.—British Case		<i>Tri. Arbl.</i>
Manual of Dates (edited by Fred. Martin)		<i>Man. Dates.</i>

EXPLANATION OF THE CHARTS.

EACH chart contains one hundred squares. Each square represents one year. Each chart, therefore, represents one century. Beginning in the upper left-hand corner the squares are numbered 1, 2, 3, etc. If the century should be the sixteenth, the square would be named 1501, 1502, 1503, and so on to 1510. The second line begins with 1511, the third with 1521, etc.

Each square is divided into *five* subdivisions, as follows:

1. Events of War and Peace.
(Battles, sieges, conquests, treaties, annexations, etc.)
2. Events Political, Social, Religious.
3. Events in Literature, Science, Art.
4. Events Miscellaneous.
5. Deaths.



To each chart is appended a key, the chronological table consisting of brief statements of the events recorded upon the chart. These statements should be thoroughly memorized in connection with the dates. A copy of each chart as it is studied should be placed upon a blackboard prepared for the purpose. The class should recite the dates and statements as they are pointed out by the teacher, until all are thoroughly learned. The teacher will be surprised at the short time required to master the dates and statements. With a reasonable amount of review it is impossible to forget them.

The historic sketches of the events of each century should be carefully read at home by the pupils, and at the history lesson, as each new statement is learned and recorded upon the blackboard in the proper square, several pupils should be called upon to give in *their own language* a brief history of the event just recorded.

An ingenious teacher can vary the teaching of the lesson in numberless ways, and make the half-hour devoted to the history lesson both delightful and instructive.

Nothing should be memorized by the pupils except the *dates* and *statements*.

The colors are used upon the charts to distinguish the different countries. As there will be less tax upon the memory if the picture upon the blackboard is similar to the one in the book, the author would recommend the use, in the formation of the blackboard chart, of the colors that are used in the book. A box of common colored crayons will contain all the colors required.

A fair trial will convince teachers that *these charts are unequalled as aids to the memorizing of dates.*

INTRODUCTORY CHAPTER.

THE TRANSITION FROM MEDIÆVAL TO MODERN TIMES.

TWO important discoveries about the beginning of the sixteenth century were the chief events that brought to a close the Dark Ages of European history.

The first of these events was the invention of the *Art of Printing*; the second, the discovery of the *New World*.

Previous to this period books were all laboriously copied by hand. Naturally they were rare and expensive. Few individuals outside of monasteries and other seats of learning knew how to read or possessed any books. About the year 1445 a Dutch mechanic living at Haarlem, Laurens Coster by name, invented a rough method of producing books other than by writing. He carved whole pages on blocks of wood and then made the impression with ink on one side of a leaf. This was a step in advance of the old method. Very soon afterwards Johann Gutenberg, of Mentz, made the great discovery of using *movable types of wood* in printing. This invention was of so much more value than the former that *Gutenberg* is usually spoken of as the *inventor* of the *Art of Printing*. Subsequently, Johann Fust and Peter Schaeffer, Gutenberg's assistants, secured possession of Gutenberg's printing establishment through a lawsuit, and they began shortly to use movable types of *metal*, such as are used at the present day. The art of printing being thus perfected, books began to multiply, people became ambitious to read, and a spirit of inquiry manifested itself among all classes of society.

The second great event in the progress of civilization was the discovery of the *New World*. Navigation was an undeveloped art. Few mariners of the time ventured out of sight of land. To their superstitious minds the sea beyond was filled with imaginary terrors. The world was supposed to contain only Europe, Asia, and Africa, and a large part of these countries was thought to be uninhabited. For the mariner to venture too far north was to run the risk of being frozen to death, while to go too far to the southward was "to singe his hair to a crispy wool, and tan his skin to the blackness of a coal." What knowledge there was of distant lands had been gained by travellers overland, priests or missionaries, and merchants of different countries, who, while exchanging their wares, told of the countries they had seen. One of the greatest of these travellers was Marco Polo, whose accounts of the lands in the far East which he had visited inspired Columbus, one of his own countrymen, with an ardent longing to reach those lands by sea. Although eventually the discoverer of the New World, Columbus was not searching for that. India was his dream, to reach India by the sea was his absorbing thought, and after four voyages to the New World he died in the belief that he had reached the shores of Asia.

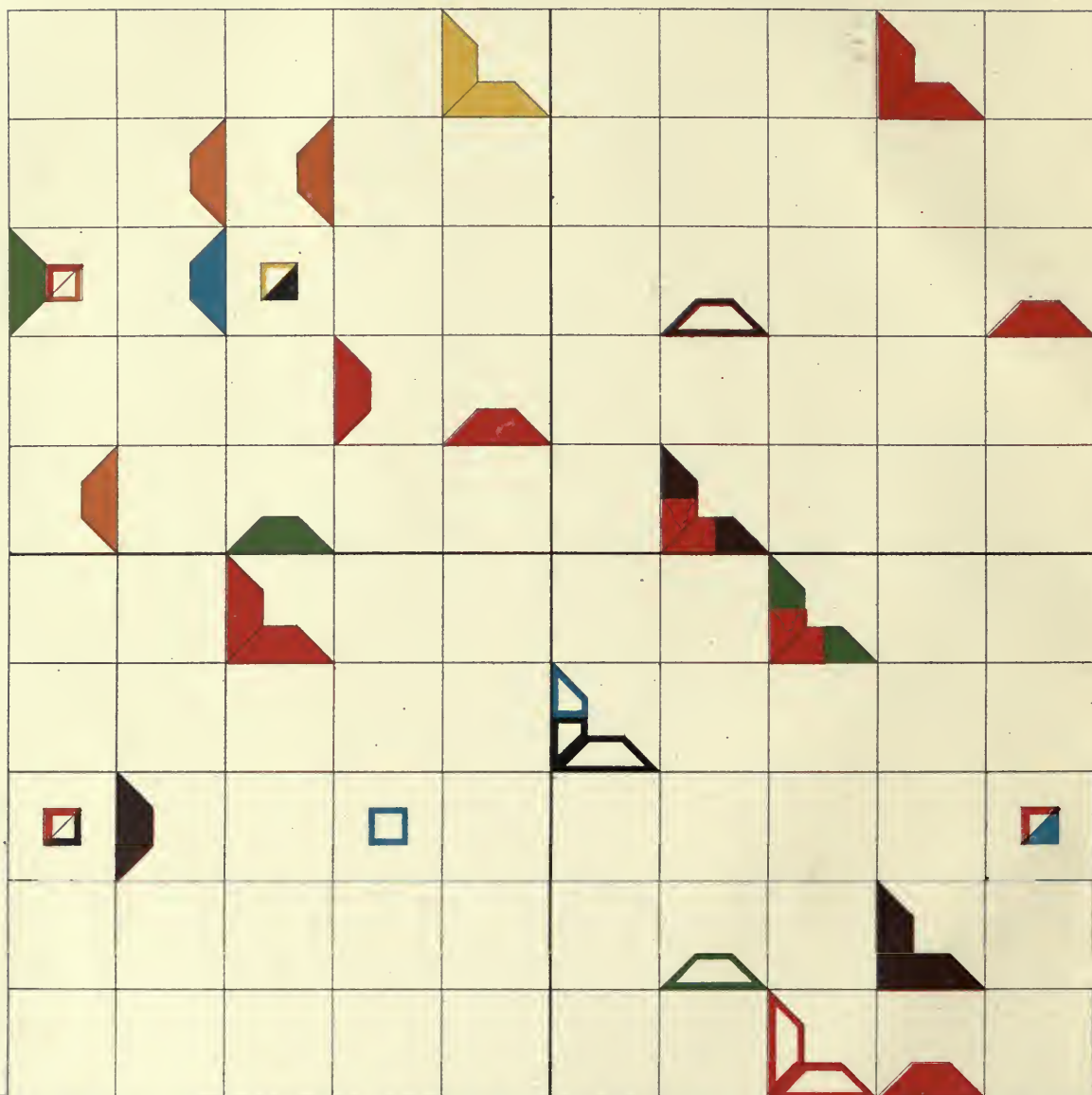
Christopher Columbus was born in Genoa, Italy, in the year 1435. He came of a race of sailors, and early in life began to follow the sea. For some years he navigated the Mediterranean,

but, tired at length of traversing a body of water so well known, he ventured beyond the straits and made a voyage to Iceland. This voyage so far beyond the northern boundaries of Europe gave him hope that navigation farther west might be possible. The great idea of his life now began to take possession of his mind,—namely, to sail westward until he should reach the Indies or the famed and mysterious island of Cipango or Japan. Riding the hobby of his one idea he travelled up and down Europe for years, from one kingdom to another, begging assistance. But he was everywhere looked upon as a wild enthusiast. Finally Queen Isabella of Spain espoused his cause and declared he should be fitted out with a trial expedition if she were obliged to pawn her jewels to secure the necessary funds. After a long and tedious period of waiting, three ships were prepared by the Spanish government, and on the 3d of August, 1492, Columbus sailed from the port of Palos with his little squadron. Ten weeks they sailed to the west. Long ere this time had elapsed the sailors had become dissatisfied and uneasy and had begged to return. Daily they grew more frightened as they looked out upon the

dreary expanse of waters, and at length their dark looks and threatening gestures indicated mutiny. Columbus reluctantly promised to turn if in three days no land was to be seen. Indications of land had been observed by his practised eye,—drift-wood and weeds had been seen floating past the ships, and birds were flying in the air. Great joy filled his heart when on the morning of the third day there went up the glad shout "Land ahead!" The terrible anxieties of the past ten weeks were forgotten, and at sunrise on the 12th of October, 1492, Columbus stepped ashore at San Salvador and took possession of the land in the name of Ferdinand and Isabella.

This great discovery of Columbus gave a wonderful impetus to the art of navigation. The seas lost their imaginary terrors, and navigators began to traverse the great deep in every direction. The products of different countries became more generally known, and a spirit of commercial enterprise was infused into the nations of Europe. The night of darkness that had lasted for one thousand years was dispelled. A new era dawned upon the civilized nations of the world.

CHART OF XVI CENTURY.



*See Explanation of Chart
on page 9.*

■ England.
■ America.
■ Russia.
■ Germany.
■ Portugal.
■ France.
■ Denmark.

▤ Spain.
▤ Mexico.
▤ Sweden.
▤ Scotland.
▤ The Netherlands.
▤ Italy.
▤ Turkey.

HOW TO REMEMBER HISTORY.

SIXTEENTH CENTURY.

CHRONOLOGY.

- 1505.** Ivan III. of Russia died.—*Kel. Rus.*, p. 105.
- 1509.** Henry VII. of England died; he was succeeded by his son, Henry VIII.—*Green, Eng.*, p. 319.
- 1512.** Florida was discovered by Juan Ponce de Leon.—*Rob. Am.*, p. 50; *Bry. U. S.*, vol. i. p. 147.
- 1513.** The Pacific Ocean was discovered by Balboa.—*Rob. Am.*, p. 51; *Bry. U. S.*, vol. i. p. 145.
- 1521.** Mexico was conquered by Cortes.—*Rob. Am.*, p. 101; *Pres. Mex.*, vol. iii. p. 3.
- 1521.** Martin Luther was arraigned before the Diet of Worms.—*D'Aub. Ref.*, vol. ii. p. 231; *See. Prot. Ref.*, p. 123.
- 1522.** Magellan's expedition completed the First voyage around the world.—*Rid. U. S.*, p. 61; *Rus. Mod. E.*, vol. ii. p. 174.
- 1523.** Sweden was freed from the Danish yoke by Gustavus Vasa.—*Lard. Cy.*, *Swed.*, vol. iii. p. 75; *Volt. Chas. XII.*, p. 202.
- 1527.** Macchiavelli, the great Italian statesman, died.—*Mac. Es.*, vol. i. p. 267; *See. Prot. Ref.*, p. 75.
- 1530.** Cardinal Wolsey died.—*Green, Eng.*, p. 330.
- 1534.** The Church of England separated from the Church of Rome.—*See. Prot. Ref.*, p. 171; *Ling. Eng.*, vol. vi. p. 203.
- 1535.** Sir Thomas More was beheaded.—*Hume, Eng.*, vol. iii. ch. xxxi.; *Ling. Eng.*, vol. vi. p. 224.
- 1541.** The Mississippi River was discovered by De Soto.—*Bry. U. S.*, vol. i.
- 1543.** Copernicus, the great astronomer, died.
- 1547.** Henry VIII. of England died; he was succeeded by his son, Edward VI.—*Froude, Eng.*, vol. iv. p. 478; *Green, Eng.*
- 1553.** Edward VI. of England died; he was succeeded by his sister Mary.—*Green, Eng.*; *Froude, Eng.*, vol. v.
- 1558.** Mary I. of England died; she was succeeded by her sister Elizabeth.—*Froude, Eng.*, vol. vi.; *Green, Eng.*
- 1558.** Charles V. of Germany died.—*Pres. Chas. V.*, vol. iii. p. 493.
- 1566.** The Iconoclasts destroyed the images in the churches throughout the Netherlands.—*Mot. D. Rep.*, vol. i. p. 551.
- 1566.** Soliman the Magnificent died, and the Ottoman empire began to decline.—*Creas. Ot. T.*, p. 196; *Bloch. T.*, p. 73.
- 1571.** The Turkish fleet was defeated at Lepanto by the allied fleets of Spain and Venice.—*Pres. Phil. II.*, vol. iii. p. 340.
- 1572.** The Huguenots were massacred throughout France on St. Bartholomew's Day.—*White, St. Bart.*; *Guiz. France*, ch. xxxiii.; *Froude, Eng.*, vol. x. p. 405; *Baird, Hugue.*, vol. ii.
- 1574.** The Prince of Orange raised the siege of Leyden by piercing the dikes in the surrounding country.—*Mot. D. Rep.*, vol. ii. p. 551.
- 1580.** Portugal was annexed to Spain by Philip II.—*Lard. Cy.*, *Spain and Port.*, vol. v. p. 212.
- 1587.** Mary, Queen of Scots, was beheaded.—*Froude, Eng.*, vol. xii. p. 360.
- 1589.** Henry III. of France was assassinated and his cousin, Henry IV., became king.—*Guiz. France*, ch. xxxiv.
- 1598.** Philip II. of Spain died.—*Pres. Phil. II.*; *Mot. Neth.*, vol. iii. p. 503.
- 1599.** Edmund Spenser, author of the "Faerie Queene," died.—*Green, Eng.*, p. 423.

HISTORIC SKETCHES.

1505. Death of Ivan III.

RUSSIA was inhabited from time immemorial by numerous barbarous tribes that owed no common bond of union. Of these the Scythians, the Slavonians, and the Finns were the chief. The history of these tribes is full of uncertainty until the ninth century, when Rurik, a Baltic chieftain who had been invited to protect the great commercial city of Novgorod against foreign aggression, took possession of the republic and portioned out its cities among his followers. The empire of Russia thus founded was rapidly enlarged by his successor, who removed the capital to Kief.

In the thirteenth century Russia was conquered by the Tartars, and during two and a half centuries the Russian sovereigns held their dominions at the will of the khan of the Tartars, to whom they were compelled to make occasional visits to sue for the right of governing. These journeys consumed a year's time, and on their arrival at the court of the khan the Russians were treated in the most insulting manner, being allowed to present their petitions to the Tartar chief only when prostrate at his feet. The Tartar invasion threw Russia more than two hundred years behind the civilization of the other states of Europe. From this period until the reign of Ivan III. Russian history is a chaos.

Ivan III., surnamed the Great, who ascended the throne in 1462, sought to raise his throne to an equality with the proudest in Europe,—to be independent outside of his dominions and autocrat within. He married Sophia, daughter of the last Greek emperor. With this haughty princess the customs and ceremonies of the court of Constantinople and its novel pageantries were intro-

duced at Moscow.* About this time the palace of the Kremlin was built. Architects, engineers, miners, minters, and other skilful workmen were drawn to Russia by promise of liberal reward. By them cannon were manufactured and silver and copper money was coined.

Ivan III. repelled two Tartar invasions of the country. In 1480, his brave allies, the Crims and Cossacks, drove back a third invasion, and Russia was freed from the galling Asiatic yoke.

He died in 1505. During his reign of forty-three years he enhanced the material greatness of his country. But there was no moral element in all his despotic grandeur, and little was done to promote the best interests of the Russian people.

1509. Death of Henry VII. Accession of Henry VIII.

The reign of Henry VII. may be considered the beginning of the history of modern England.

During the long and bloody Wars of the Roses,† which closed with Henry's accession to the throne, the old feudal nobility was almost destroyed, and from the ranks of the peasantry there gradually arose a middle class of farmers

* The capital of Russia was changed from Kief to Moscow during the reign of Ivan I., in the fourteenth century.

† The Wars of the Roses were caused by the rival claims of the houses of York and Lancaster to the throne of England, and were so named from the badges worn by the contending parties, that of York being the white rose, that of Lancaster the red rose. During the wars, which lasted from 1455 to 1485, one Lancastrian king, Henry VI., and three Yorkist kings, Edward IV., Edward V., and Richard III., occupied successively the throne. At the battle of Bosworth Field (1485) Richard III. was slain and Henry VII. of Lancaster was offered the crown.

and merchants,—the future backbone of the English nation. Through the newly-discovered art of printing, books were now circulated among the people, and men began to read for themselves and assume some independence of thought.

Henry VII. was only indirectly sprung from the House of Lancaster, and his title was none of the clearest, but his marriage with Elizabeth, daughter of Edward IV. of York, united the rival houses and placed him for the time securely upon the throne. He was not without rivals, however. The most dangerous were two nephews of Edward IV.,—the young Earl of Warwick and John de la Pole, Earl of Lincoln. Warwick was immediately shut up in the Tower of London. Lincoln, who paid homage to the new king and appeared to be devoted to his cause, remained at liberty.

But Henry was not destined to reign in peace. In the second year of his reign a rumor was circulated that the Earl of Warwick had escaped from the Tower. A handsome youth named Lambert Simnel was chosen to personate him. This impostor, having announced that he was the young earl, was taken to Dublin and there proclaimed king under the title of Edward VI. The Earl of Lincoln now deserted the king's cause and joined Simnel at Dublin. Henry at once exhibited in public the real Earl of Warwick, and thus prevented the insurrection from spreading in England. The adherents of the impostor landed in Lancashire, but they were defeated by the king's troops and Simnel was taken prisoner. Lincoln was killed in the battle. To show his contempt for his foe Henry pardoned Simnel and placed him as scullion in the royal kitchen.

Some years later a new pretender appeared. He professed to be Richard, Duke of York, the younger of the two sons of Edward IV. who were murdered in the Tower in 1483. This youth, whose real name was Perkin Warbeck, found great allies and supporters. His claims were recognized by the Kings of France and Scot-

land and by the Duchess of Burgundy, sister of Edward IV., who looked upon him as her nephew. After various adventures in Ireland, Scotland, and France, Warbeck assumed the title of Richard IV. and unfurled his standard in Cornwall. He raised an army of six thousand men, but on the eve of battle with the king's troops his heart failed him, and, leaving his army to take care of itself, he fled to the sanctuary of Beaulieu. The rebels were soon dispersed and Warbeck was induced to throw himself upon the king's mercy. Henry compelled him to make a full confession of his imposture. This was published, and Warbeck was then placed in close custody. Attempting to escape, he was thrown into the Tower of London. There he made the acquaintance of the unfortunate Earl of Warwick, who had spent nearly all his life in prison for no fault except that he was of royal blood. The pair formed a plan of escape, but it was discovered, and both were put to death (1499). The execution of the Earl of Warwick was the only violent and cruel act of Henry's reign.

At last Henry was settled safely upon the throne. His attention was now devoted to the accumulation of money, to secure which he resorted to most unjust exactions and extortions. Towards the end of his reign he got two griping and cunning lawyers, Empson and Dudley, to help him. They raked up all sorts of old and obsolete laws and pretexts for extorting money from the people, and made themselves cordially hated by everybody but the king, whose coffers they were filling.

Henry took great pains to lessen the power of the nobles, for he was determined to have no more noblemen like the Earl of Warwick of Edward IV.'s time, who could make or unmake kings at his pleasure. He passed a law allowing the nobles to sell their estates. Hitherto when an estate was in "entail" it was fixed to a particular line of heirs, who had no power to sell or bequeath it to any other persons. Now the

middle classes who had money gladly bought these estates from nobles burdened with debt, and thus rose in importance.

The great event of this age was the discovery of the New World. Although this was accomplished by the Spanish under Columbus, the main-land of North America was discovered through English enterprise in 1497, when Sebastian Cabot, a Venetian sent out by Henry VII., touched at Labrador.

Throughout his entire reign Henry maintained peaceful relations with foreign countries; and he cemented these alliances by making prudent marriages for his children. His eldest son, Arthur, married Catherine, daughter of Ferdinand of Spain, and his eldest daughter, Margaret, became the wife of the King of Scotland. Momentous events afterwards grew out of both these marriages.

Henry died in 1509. He left in his treasury one million eight hundred thousand pounds,—a prodigious sum of money if estimated at its present value. His great vice was avarice, but on his death-bed he felt some compunctions for the means he had employed in amassing his great wealth, and he enjoined upon his son to restore the money to those from whom it had been unjustly extorted.

Arthur, the Prince of Wales, having died several years previous, Henry was succeeded by his second son, Henry VIII., a youth of eighteen.

1512. Discovery of Florida.

After the discovery of America in 1492, innumerable expeditions were made to the New World by the maritime nations of Europe. The Spaniards were for a time foremost in these voyages of discovery. They established colonies in the West India Islands and discovered the main-land of South America, but made no attempt to explore the main-land of North America. At length, in 1512, Juan Ponce de Leon,

the Spanish governor of Porto Rico, fitted out three ships at his own expense for a voyage of discovery and adventure. He had grown rich in his office at Porto Rico, but he had grown old too, and it was in the hope of finding on one of the Bahama Islands a fountain which, according to a tradition among the natives of Porto Rico, would restore youth and vigor to the most decrepit and enfeebled who bathed in its waters, that Ponce set out upon his voyage.

After searching for some time through these islands for the wonderful fountain, but all in vain, Ponce sailed northwest and discovered a country hitherto unknown to the Spaniards. Landing a short distance north of the spot where St. Augustine, the oldest town of the United States, was afterwards founded, he claimed the country for the King of Spain and named it *Florida*, either from the abundance of flowers with which the forests were adorned or (more probably) because of the day on which the discovery was made,—Easter Sunday,—the Spanish Feast of Flowers,—Pascua Florida.

The unsuccessful search for the Fountain of Youth was continued. Turning southward, the adventurers explored the coast for many leagues, discovered the Tortugas Islands, and finally sailed back to Porto Rico, without having found the fountain, and no younger than when they started out.

1513. Discovery of the Pacific Ocean.

Soon after the discovery of Florida, one of much greater importance was made in another part of America. The Spaniards had planted upon the Isthmus of Darien their first continental colony in 1510. Enciso, the first governor, was soon deposed, and Vasco Nuñez de Balboa was raised by his associates to the government of the small colony. He at once despatched one of his officers to Spain to secure the royal commission, without which he had no legal title to the supreme command. Anxious to merit

this dignity in the eyes of the king, Balboa made frequent inroads into the adjacent country, subdued several of the caciques, or chiefs, and collected a considerable quantity of gold. On one of these excursions a young chief told him that at the distance of six suns (*i.e.*, six days' journey), towards the south they should discover another ocean, near to which was gold in immense quantities.

Balboa immediately concluded that this was the ocean for which Columbus had searched in vain, and he was elated with the idea of performing what that great man had failed to accomplish.

The Isthmus of Darien is not above seventy miles in breadth. It contains a chain of lofty mountains, which are covered with forests almost impenetrable, while the valleys are so marshy that the Indians sometimes found it necessary to build their houses upon trees. To march through this unexplored country with no other guides than Indians whose fidelity could be little trusted was the boldest enterprise on which the Spaniards had hitherto ventured in the New World.

Balboa set out upon this important expedition in September, 1513, accompanied by one hundred and ninety Spaniards and one thousand Indians. On their advance into the interior they were opposed by the natives, who carried off or destroyed whatever could afford subsistence to the troops. When they had penetrated a good way into the mountains, a powerful cacique appeared with a large number of his subjects to oppose their progress. The Spaniards, however, attacked and dispersed them, and, though daunted, moved on.

Instead of reaching the sea in six days, they had now spent twenty-five days in forcing their way through the woods and mountains. Many of the soldiers began to fail under such uninterrupted fatigues and some were taken ill. At length the Indians assured them that from the top of the next mountain they should discover

the ocean. When with infinite toil they had climbed up the greater part of that steep ascent, Balboa commanded his men to halt, and he advanced alone to the summit. There at last he beheld the South Sea stretching in endless prospect below, and, falling on his knees, he returned thanks to God. His followers then rushed forward to join in his exultation and gratitude. With alacrity they descended to the sea-shore, and Balboa, advancing into the water, sword in hand, took possession of the ocean in the name of the King of Spain.

After extorting provisions and gold from the chiefs in the neighborhood, the Spaniards returned to the colony at Santa Maria by a different route, but one equally difficult and dangerous, arriving home after an absence of four months.

Balboa immediately sent word to Spain of the important discovery he had made. Instead of rewarding him for his great service Ferdinand ungenerously removed him from the command of the colony. Subsequently the king saw the imprudence of thus superseding the most active and experienced officer in the New World, and he conferred upon Balboa new privileges and authority. Balboa now began to prepare for an expedition to the South Sea, but just as he was ready to sail he was seized by Pedrarias Davila, the new governor, and put to death. Pedrarias was never punished for this unwarrantable crime.

1521. Conquest of Mexico.

The earliest inhabitants of Anahuac, afterwards called Mexico, of whom we have any knowledge were the Toltecs, a partly-civilized race who came from the north in the seventh century. These Toltecs emigrated to Central America in the eleventh century.

The Aztecs, or Mexicans, came from the northwest into the country which now bears their name about 1200 A.D. This fierce race

soon conquered the tribes around them, until at the beginning of the sixteenth century the Aztec empire under Montezuma reached across the continent from the Gulf of Mexico to the Pacific. The Aztecs engrafted upon the civilization of their predecessors many cruel and barbarous practices. They sacrificed human beings to their false gods with the most revolting ceremonies. But they were skilful agriculturists. They manufactured cloth. They wrought the precious metals into exquisite designs and forms. Their capital city, Tenochtitlan, or Mexico, founded in 1325 upon islands in the Lake of Tezcuco, was adorned with lofty and imposing temples.

Such was the condition of Mexico when, in 1518, a Spanish squadron commanded by Juan de Grijalva discovered the country. When Grijalva returned to Cuba without having attempted the settlement of Mexico, Hernando Cortes was given command of an expedition for the subjugation of the country. Cortes was cruel, unprincipled, and avaricious, but he was also energetic and fearless.

In 1519 he landed upon the shores of Mexico with about six hundred Spaniards, a dozen horses, and ten small cannon. He soon heard of the native sovereign Montezuma,—that he reigned over an extensive empire and that his riches were immense. The cupidity of the Spaniards was aroused by these reports, and they set out immediately for Mexico, the residence of Montezuma.

Their progress inland was opposed by the republic of Tlascala, but after several battles, in which the Tlascalans were beaten, the latter concluded a treaty with Cortes and offered to march with him to Mexico, in hope of an opportunity to avenge the wrongs they had suffered at the hands of the Aztecs. Accompanied by several thousands of his new allies, Cortes arrived at Mexico in November, 1519. He was kindly received by Montezuma, who looked upon the Spaniards with their smooth, fair skin

as of divine origin. Soon perceiving that he had pushed forward into a situation where it was difficult to continue, and anxious to carry out his idea of conquering the country, Cortes determined upon the bold plan of seizing Montezuma and carrying him prisoner to the Spanish quarters. Relying upon the implicit obedience of the Mexicans to their monarch's will, he expected soon to obtain control of the government.

Accordingly, one day when alone with the Spaniards, Montezuma was ordered, under threat of instant death if he made a sign or a cry for help, to go with the Spaniards to their quarters as their guest for a time, and to inform his subjects that he went of his own free will. Without a murmur the fallen monarch did as he was commanded, and was conveyed in silent pomp to the Spanish quarters, ostensibly their guest, in reality a close prisoner. The only explanation that can be made of Montezuma's strange conduct is that he believed the strangers to be of supernatural origin and thought it useless to disobey their commands.

At this critical juncture Cortes heard that an armament had been sent by the jealous governor of Cuba to displace him. Leaving about two hundred Spaniards in Mexico to guard Montezuma, Cortes marched to meet the expedition, captured Narvaez, the leader, and enlisted his followers in his own cause. With his new recruits he returned to Mexico to find the people in insurrection. Realizing at last the intentions of the Spaniards, the Mexicans had risen against them, and failing to induce Montezuma to return to their protection, they killed him as he was attempting to address them from the ramparts of the Spanish quarters. The Spaniards were now furiously attacked. After most desperate fighting, in which more than half the little army perished, the remainder made good their escape from the city. They retreated at once towards Tlascala. On

the way they were confronted by a large army of Mexicans, with whom they fought a hotly-contested battle. The overpowering numbers of the enemy seemed on the point of winning the victory, when the Mexican general was killed, and his army fled panic-stricken to the mountains. The victorious Spaniards reached the Tlascalcan territory the next day.

After recruiting their strength, they collected an auxiliary native army, reduced the neighboring provinces, and returned to lay siege to Mexico. The inhabitants made a gallant defence under their new emperor, Guatemozin; but after a siege of seventy-five days they were compelled to surrender (August 13, 1521). Guatemozin was put to death, and Mexico became a Spanish province.

Cortes was made governor, but subsequently he was deprived of much of his power through the jealousy of his enemies in Spain, and, like many other of the explorers of the New World, finally died in solitude and neglect.

1521. Martin Luther.

Martin Luther, the leader of the German Reformation, was born at Eisleben, Saxony, in 1483. He was educated at the University of Erfurt, graduating in 1505. His father desired him to enter the legal profession, but Luther made up his mind to become a monk, and accordingly entered the Augustine convent at Erfurt. He had not been in the convent long when he was prevailed upon to accept a professorship in the University of Wittenberg. Here he lectured upon Greek philosophy and upon religion.

In 1516 a Dominican monk named Tetzcl travelled through Germany selling indulgences, —papers which he said would remit the sins of all who purchased them. Luther, hearing of the matter, wrote a book denouncing the sale of these indulgences, and a great controversy

ensued. At length he was summoned to appear before the emperor, Charles V., at Worms, to answer the charges that had been preferred against him.

Luther gives a brief but characteristic account of the proceedings at Worms. "Are the books yours?"—"Yes."—"Will you revoke or not?"—"No."—"Get you gone, then."

Friends in disguise seized him on his homeward journey and carried him to the Wartburg Castle, where he lived in safe retirement nearly a year.

There he employed his time in translating the Bible into German. This work was not entirely completed until 1534.

The Diet of Worms published an edict denouncing Luther as a heretic, and from that time he was irrevocably separated from the Church of Rome. After his return to Wittenberg he continued to write and teach the doctrines of the Reformation until his death, which occurred in 1546.

1522. The First Voyage around the World.

Among the daring enterprises which marked the beginning of the sixteenth century, that of Ferdinand Magalhaens, or Magellan, a Portuguese navigator, is worthy of special mention.

This bold man determined to discover a southwest passage to Asia, which he believed would be shorter and less dangerous than the route by way of the Cape of Good Hope. With this object in view he appealed to King Emmanuel of Portugal for assistance, but the king listened coldly and gave no encouragement. Incensed at this treatment, Magellan went to Spain and laid his plans before Charles V. The emperor was favorably impressed with the project, and ordered a fleet of five ships to be fitted out for Magellan's use.

In August, 1519, Magellan sailed from Seville with his little squadron. Touching at the

Canary Islands, he sailed west to Brazil, and spent the autumn in searching every bay and inlet for the expected communication with the southern ocean. In January, 1520, he reached the Rio de la Plata. After sailing up this stream for some days, he concluded, from the freshness of the water and the shallowness of the stream, that the wished-for strait could not be there. He accordingly turned back and continued his course towards the south.

The Spaniards now began to suffer excessively from the rigors of the climate. The crews of three ships mutinied and insisted on returning to Spain. Magellan succeeded in suppressing this dangerous insurrection, and the southward voyage was continued. At length he discovered the mouth of a strait, into which he entered, in spite of the murmurs and remonstrances of his men. After sailing twenty days in that winding and dangerous channel to which he gave his own name, the great southern ocean opened to his view. Meantime one of the ships had deserted, but, encouraged by his great discovery, Magellan sailed into the ocean, taking a north-west course through the limitless expanse of waters. Nearly four months passed before they saw land again. The crews suffered considerably from want of water and scarcity of provisions. The weather, however, continued fair and beautiful, with such favorable winds that Magellan bestowed on the ocean the name of Pacific, by which it has since been known.

At length, in March, they reached a group of small islands, where they found abundance of delicious fruit. From these islands, which Magellan called *Ladrones* (robbers) from the thieving propensities of the natives, he sailed westward and made the more important discovery of the islands now called *Philippines*. Here, during an attack made upon them by the natives, Magellan and several of his officers were killed. The crews chose a new captain, and the voyage was continued.

After touching at Borneo and a number of the

small islands in the vicinity they reached the Moluccas,—the objective-point of the expedition. The Portuguese on the islands were much astonished that the Spaniards had arrived there by holding a westerly course, and they listened to the story of their adventures with breathless interest.

When ready to return home, the Spaniards found that only one ship was fit for the long voyage. Taking on a cargo of precious spices, they sailed in this vessel January, 1522. This time they followed the course of the Portuguese by the Cape of Good Hope, and after many disasters arrived safely in Spain in September.

The circumnavigation of the globe, long believed an impossibility, had thus been accomplished. Though an untimely fate deprived Magellan of the satisfaction of completing this great undertaking himself, his contemporaries, just to his memory and talents, ascribed to him not only the honor of having formed the plan, but of having surmounted almost every obstacle to its completion.

1523. Liberation of Sweden by Gustavus Vasa.

The Scandinavian nations, Norway, Sweden, and Denmark, were united in the latter part of the fourteenth century under the rule of Margaret, Queen of Denmark. The sovereigns of Denmark continued their sway over the three countries until the beginning of the sixteenth century, when Sweden was freed through the patriotic exertions of Gustavus Vasa, a young Swedish nobleman.

The first attempt of Gustavus to rouse the peasants to revolt was unsuccessful. The King of Denmark, Christian II., surnamed the Tyrant, set a price upon Gustavus's head and threatened death to any who should assist him. Gustavus fled to the mountains of Dalecarlia, where he worked as a miner and wood-cutter until he deemed the time ripe for his enterprise. Then

making himself known to the peasantry and miners, his remarkable eloquence aroused in them the spirit of independence, and six hundred men took up arms against their Danish oppressors. The insurrection spread with great rapidity, and the Danes were speedily driven from the kingdom. Gustavus was elected king, and by his wise administration raised his country to an honorable rank among the nations of Europe.

1527. Macchiavelli.

Niccolo Macchiavelli, an Italian author and statesman, was born in Florence in 1469. His father was a lawyer, his mother a poetess. In 1498, Niccolo was appointed secretary of the "Ten,"—the body of magistrates to whom the supreme government of the republic was intrusted. The position of Florence at that period was one of great importance, and her relations to the chief powers of Europe required the highest qualities of statesmanship. Macchiavelli's talents in this direction developed rapidly. He was sent on numerous embassies to foreign countries, and was employed in various commissions to the cities dependent on Florence. His correspondence with the government of the Florentine republic during these missions was very extensive, and his despatches are models of diplomatic style. They form one of the most instructive and entertaining collections of state papers ever published.

In the latter part of his life he was accused of being concerned in a conspiracy against Cardinal de Medici, afterwards Pope Leo X. He was thrown into prison, but soon after the accession of Leo X. he obtained his freedom and gradually returned to public life. His last employment was in the army of the league against Charles V. He died on his return to Florence in 1527.

Of the writings of Macchiavelli the most celebrated is "Del Principe,"—"The Prince." This

work is upon methods of controlling the government of a nation, and until quite recently was condemned as designed to teach the vilest arts of despotism. Scarcely any book of ancient or modern times has been so violently assailed. That synonyme for the devil, "Old Nic," was coined out of Macchiavelli's Christian name by the English as an expression of the light in which they regarded him and his writings.

The researches of modern Italian scholars have in some measure vindicated the name of Macchiavelli from the opprobrium heaped upon it.

1530. Cardinal Wolsey.

Among the many celebrated men who flourished during the reign of Henry VIII. none was more remarkable than Thomas Wolsey, who, from being a butcher's son, rose to the dignity of lord chancellor of the kingdom. He was born at Ipswich in 1471. Graduating at Oxford when only fifteen years of age, he was known all through the university as the "Boy Bachelor." His talents and industry soon attracted the notice of the king (Henry VII.), who gave him a chaplaincy in the royal household and subsequently made him Dean of Lincoln.

When Henry VIII. came to the throne Wolsey became one of his counsellors. Henry was young and fond of pleasure, Wolsey was fond of work, and he was shrewd enough to see that the best way to win the king's favor was by helping Henry to indulge his tastes. So Wolsey attended to the affairs of state, relieved Henry from all care and responsibility, and gave him abundant opportunity to amuse himself. The result was that Wolsey obtained enormous power, and for fifteen years was complete master of the kingdom. He became not only lord chancellor and Archbishop of York, but he was made a cardinal by the pope, and he hoped to be pope himself by and by.

He now began to live in splendid style. In his household he had not less than five hundred retainers, doctors, chaplains, and choristers innumerable, and servants of all degrees. Whenever he went out to ride his cardinal's hat was borne before him by a gentleman of rank, while the ushers going down the hall cried out, "On before, my lords and masters, on before, and make way for my Lord Cardinal." Then when he came to the door he mounted a mule trapped in crimson velvet, with a velvet saddle and gilt stirrups. With this display he went through the streets followed by a great train of nobles and gentlemen, and the people, from whose ranks he had risen, were mightily pleased with all this pomp and splendor.

But this glory was not to last. The king had begun to talk about a divorce from Queen Catherine. From motives of policy, Wolsey at first approved of the step (to further his own schemes he wanted Henry to marry a French princess), and he gave the king assurance that the divorce should be secured. But the pope, in a dilemma between his desire to please Henry and his fear of Charles V., the nephew of Queen Catherine, delayed his answer from time to time. Henry became very impatient.

But Wolsey's plans all came to naught. Even before the pope was asked for the divorce Henry informed the cardinal that he intended to marry Anne Boleyn, one of the queen's maids of honor. The French princess was not to be thought of. In deep disappointment Wolsey retired from the royal presence, and from that moment he secretly opposed the divorce. Months passed and still no decision of the matter was given. Henry began to suspect that his minister was playing a double part and that he was responsible for this delay. In great anger he deprived Wolsey of the seals of office and banished him in disgrace to his see of York. Hardly a year had passed when he was summoned to London on a charge of high treason. On his journey sickness seized him, and he was forced to rest at

Leicester Abbey. Already broken-hearted by his fall, he felt that he was dying, and as he reviewed his past life he turned to his attendant and said, mournfully, "Had I but served God as diligently as I have served the king, He would not have given me over in my gray hairs."

In the days of his prosperity Wolsey was a liberal patron of literature and the arts. He built a college at his native town of Ipswich, endowed seven lectureships at Oxford, and founded there the splendid college of Christ Church.

1534. The English Reformation.

The English Reformation as brought about by Henry VIII. was at first only a question of power and authority, and not one of religion and faith. It was not until the next reign that the real doctrines of Protestantism began to take a firm hold upon the people.

When Henry found that the pope did not intend to grant him a divorce from Queen Catherine, he determined to have it in spite of the papal power. Previous to this time he had no thought of breaking with the Church of Rome. He had been a zealous Catholic, and had even written a book against the doctrines of Luther, for which the pope had given him the title of "Defender of the Faith." But Henry loved his own will more than anything else, and he was bound to have his way.

Two new advisers helped him greatly towards the accomplishment of his purposes,—Cranmer, Archbishop of Canterbury, and Thomas Cromwell, the new prime minister. Cromwell proposed the bold plan of proclaiming Henry head of the Church in England and of obtaining a divorce from his own ecclesiastical courts. The matter was at once laid before Parliament, and Lords and Commons declared that the pope should have no more authority in England, and that the king was supreme head both of Church and State (1534). A court of English bishops,

presided over by Cranmer, immediately granted the long-coveted divorce.

The execution of Sir Thomas More and Bishop Fisher the following year was the occasion of the final breach with Rome, and from that time the Church of England had a separate existence.

1535. Sir Thomas More.

Sir Thomas More, an English statesman, philosopher, and author, was born in 1480. He was one of the most learned men of his time. While studying at Oxford he became acquainted with Colet and Erasmus, two Greek scholars of note, and the three became fast friends. Their efforts to bring about reforms both in learning and in religion won for them the name of the Oxford Reformers.

After More left the university he took up the practice of law in London. He soon rose to great eminence in his profession and became a member of Parliament. Henry VIII. made him one of his counsellors and sent him on various diplomatic missions. After the fall of Wolsey, More became lord chancellor of the kingdom, but soon foreseeing that the measures of the king and Parliament would lead to a breach with the Church of Rome and to an alteration of religion which he could not accept, he resigned his office, after a brief ministry of two years (1532).

More's silent disapproval of the king's course was especially galling to Henry's new adviser, Thomas Cromwell, through whose influence many of the changes, both political and religious, were being carried out. Through Cromwell's influence More was required to swear allegiance to the Act of Succession, which sanctioned Henry's marriage with Anne Boleyn and made the divorce from Catherine valid. This oath More would not take, for he did not believe that the divorce and remarriage were valid. He was at once committed to the

Tower, where he remained a prisoner more than a year. At length he was brought to trial on the ground that he had refused to acknowledge the king's supremacy as head of the Church. As More himself expected, he was condemned to death. When told that the king as an act of favor had commuted his sentence from burning to decapitation, he remarked with his usual facetiousness, "God preserve all my friends from such favors."

On the scaffold his cheerfulness never once forsook him. As the fatal stroke was about to descend he moved aside his beard, saying, "Pity that should be cut, for it never committed treason." More declared that he died a faithful subject of the king and a true Catholic before God. So perished the foremost Englishman of his age.

As an author More is chiefly famous for his charming work called "Utopia," or the Land of Nowhere. It describes an imaginary commonwealth where everybody has a pleasant home, no one works too hard, no one quarrels about religion, every one can read and write, and the king rules to make his people safe, wise, and happy. This book is the embodiment of his ideal of government, education, and social life.

1541. Discovery of the Mississippi River.

Ferdinand de Soto was a Spanish adventurer sent out by the Spanish government to be governor of Cuba and Florida, and with authority to make whatever discoveries he pleased in the New World. De Soto had previously been in Peru with Pizarro, the famous or infamous conqueror of that unhappy land.

In 1539 De Soto left Spain with a squadron of ten vessels. Touching at Cuba in June, he left his wife to govern in his absence, and then sailed onward to Florida, anchoring in Tampa Bay. He then began his march into the interior, through swamps, across rivers, and gener-

ally fighting the Indians instead of trying to win their friendship. By these measures the Spaniards succeeded in making deadly foes of those whose lands they traversed, and finally, at the close of a great battle with the Indians, De Soto and his men found themselves without provisions and without baggage.

After enduring great hardships, which they richly deserved, they succeeded in getting fresh supplies from their fleet, and they continued their journey westward. Led by a few friendly Indians, they reached the Mississippi River in the spring of 1541. To the west of the river they found the Indians in a measure civilized. But Spanish greed and Spanish cruelty had no respect of persons. Indian towns were destroyed for mere sport, and Indian captives were burned alive on the smallest pretext.

De Soto, who appears to have been superior to the company he had gathered around him, was finally stricken with fever. Anxiety over the fate of his expedition preyed upon his mind and hastened his death. De Soto had assured the Indians that he was the Child of the Sun and that he could not die. Fearful that a knowledge of his death would embolden the Indians to attack the impoverished and worn-out expedition, his followers took the body of their dead commander and in the darkness of the night silently dropped it into the middle of the great Father of Waters.

The Spaniards continued their explorations, enduring the greatest hardships until they reached the mouth of the Red River. Here they constructed rude boats and in them descended to the Gulf of Mexico, and thence to the settlement at the mouth of the River of Palms.

1543. Copernicus.

Nicholas Copernicus, the founder of our present system of astronomy, was born at Thorn, in Prussia, in 1473. He was educated at the Uni-

versity of Cracow, where he gave his especial attention to medicine, mathematics, and astronomy. He afterwards continued the study of astronomy at Bologna and at Rome. In 1502 he returned to Cracow, and was made canon of Frauenburg by his uncle, the Bishop of Ermeland. He now divided his time conscientiously into three portions: one for the duties of his clerical office, one for the gratuitous practice of medicine among the poor, and one for the pursuit of his favorite study, astronomy. The Ptolemaic system, founded by Ptolemy of Egypt in the second century, had prevailed over every other hypothesis advanced during two thousand years and was generally believed. According to this system the earth was the centre of the universe, having the sun and stars revolving round it. Copernicus believed that the sun and stars are stationary; that the moon alone revolves about the earth; that the earth is a planet whose orbit is between Venus and Mars; that the planets revolve about the sun; and that the apparent revolution of the heavens is caused by the rotation of the earth on its axis.* Copernicus tested his views by twenty-three years of careful observation and computation. His discoveries attracted much attention among astronomers, who were eager to see his data and proofs. In the mean while Copernicus wrote a book detailing his views, but he hesitated to publish it until the most thorough study should prove that his statements were correct. Twelve years after he had written the book—"The Revolutions of the Celestial Orbs" he called it—the first published copy was placed in his hands on the very day of his death (1543).

The tower from which he made his observations and the ruins of a hydraulic machine constructed by him may still be seen at Frauenburg.

In 1822 a monument was raised to his mem-

* Pythagoras, a Greek philosopher who lived 600 years before Christ, taught that the sun was the centre of the universe, thus more nearly approaching the truth than Ptolemy.

ory at Cracow, bearing the inscription, from the book of Joshua, "Sta, Sol, ne moveare."

1547. Death of Henry VIII. Accession of Edward IV.

Henry VIII. commenced his reign under the most auspicious circumstances. He was young, well educated, handsome, and unboundedly popular, and the first king since Richard II. whose claim to the crown was undisputed. One of his first acts which gave especial satisfaction to the people was the execution of Empson and Dudley, the hated tax-collectors of his father.

Shortly after he came to the throne Henry joined the league which was formed by Spain, Venice, and the pope (Julius II.) against Louis XII. of France, who was attempting the conquest of Italy. His Parliament having granted the necessary supplies, Henry led an army into France. While he was winning a few easy victories of no account to his country, James IV. of Scotland, the ally of France, took advantage of Henry's absence and invaded England. But an English army marched northward, commanded by the Earl of Surrey, and defeated the Scotch at Flodden Field. James IV. was slain in the battle.

After nearly twenty years of married life Henry suddenly pretended to have doubts about the legality of his marriage with Queen Catherine because she had been his brother Arthur's wife. But his hasty marriage with Anne Boleyn after he had obtained a divorce from Queen Catherine indicates that he was not actuated by conscientious scruples alone in desiring a separation from Catherine. The beautiful Anne Boleyn enjoyed the honors of royalty two brief years, when she was accused of unfaithfulness to her royal spouse, condemned, and beheaded. The day after her execution Henry married Jane Seymour.

About this time various changes were made

in the doctrines of the new church of England. Monasteries and other religious houses were suppressed and images and shrines were destroyed. In all these important changes Thomas Cromwell was a most active and useful agent, and he is said to have gathered into the royal treasury upon the confiscation of the property of the monasteries one hundred and sixty thousand pounds, besides an enormous amount of gold and jewels.

In 1537 Jane Seymour died, leaving a young son, afterwards King Edward VI. Henry, who appears to have entertained some real affection for his third wife, remained a widower for three years. At length a fourth wife was found for him through the agency of Thomas Cromwell. This lady was Anne of Cleves, a German princess. But on her arrival in England Henry was so disappointed in her personal appearance that he insisted upon a divorce at once. Chiefly for his share in the contract with Anne of Cleves Cromwell was accused of treason, and notwithstanding the great services he had rendered his master he was consigned to the scaffold.

Henry's fifth matrimonial venture was the selection of Catherine Howard, a niece of the Duke of Norfolk. This lady enjoyed the title of queen a little more than a year, when she was accused of sundry high crimes and misdemeanors, of which she was in all probability guilty, and she was put to death. Tired of marrying for beauty, Henry looked for sense and discretion in his next wife. These he happily found united in Catherine Parr, widow of Lord Latimer. He married her in 1543, and although she nearly lost her head in consequence of a theological discussion with the king, her ready wit saved her life and she survived her fickle husband.

In his last days Henry was haunted by the fear that after his death the leaders of the Catholic party would proclaim Mary, the daughter of his first wife, instead of Edward, the Prince of Wales. He accordingly caused the chiefs of

the Papist party to be arrested. Among them were the Duke of Norfolk and his accomplished son, Henry Howard, Earl of Surrey, the writer of the earliest English blank verse. Surrey was beheaded at once and Norfolk was imprisoned. As he lay in prison awaiting the fate of his son news came that the king was dead (1547).

The Princesses Mary, daughter of Catherine of Aragon, and Elizabeth, daughter of Anne Boleyn, had been considered illegitimate by some of the people, but Parliament decided that both should be considered as lawful heirs to the crown in due order after their brother Edward, and Henry's will made to this effect was carried out.

The greatest faults of Henry VIII. were fickleness and self-will unduly directed. Few English monarchs have had more absolute power than he enjoyed during his entire reign.

The first translation of the Bible that was allowed to be read by the people at large was made during this reign by Tyndale and Coverdale.

Henry VIII. was succeeded by his son, Edward VI., a boy of ten years. A council of nobles and clergy was appointed by the provisions of Henry's will to manage the affairs of the kingdom until Edward should reach the age of eighteen.

1547. Death of Francis I. of France. Accession of Henry II.

According to Guizot, the reign of Francis I. commences the era of modern France.

Francis ascended the throne in 1515 at the age of eighteen. He was brave, brilliant, and of amiable character, but so reckless, extravagant, and inexperienced that the good Louis XII. said, when speaking of Francis as his successor, "We are laboring in vain; this big boy will spoil everything."

Francis had been carefully trained in the code of knighthood, and as soon as he came to the

throne he longed to achieve some military triumph. His first step was to invade Italy, and, winning the battle of Marignano, he took possession of Milan.

In 1519, when Maximilian of Germany died, Francis set himself up as the rival of Charles I.* of Spain for the vacant throne. The election of Charles as emperor led to a series of wars between the two sovereigns, which covered a period of more than twenty years. Both monarchs sought the influence and support of Henry VIII. of England, and after Charles became emperor Francis invited Henry to a personal interview in Flanders. Vast wooden palaces were erected upon the meeting-ground, with decorations so brilliant as to give the appearance of fairy-land. On this account it was called "The Field of the Cloth of Gold." An entire fortnight was spent in feasting and maskings and tournaments. The English courtiers absolutely ruined themselves in their efforts to vie with the magnificence of the French. All they received in return was the ridicule of those whom they thus imitated, the Frenchmen saying that they did well to be proud, as they were carrying on their backs whole parks, meadows, and mills,—referring to the lands which the English had sold in order to pay for their summer's day of splendor. The kings at length separated, making each other a thousand promises which they had certainly no intention of fulfilling. Instead of returning direct to England the crafty Henry paid a visit to Charles V., and after a three days' conference they parted the best of friends.

Wolsey had been won to the side of Charles by bribes and promises, and through his influence Henry now formed a league with Charles and the pope against France. Francis began hostilities by invading Italy. On account of certain grievances one of his best generals, the

* After the election of Charles I. of Spain to the throne of the German empire he is known as Charles V.

Constable Bourbon, deserted and joined the army of the emperor, and the French led by incompetent commanders were defeated. During the campaign the brave Chevalier Bayard was killed. Francis then took command of the army in person. Meeting the imperial troops at Pavia, a desperate struggle ensued. The French were defeated and Francis was a prisoner in the hands of Charles (1525). The unfortunate monarch was taken to Spain, and after lying in prison nearly a year, he was restored to liberty only by agreeing to give to Charles the duchy of Burgundy, to renounce all his pretensions to Italy, and to give to Charles both his sons as hostages. His sons were sent to Spain, but the remainder of the treaty was not fulfilled.

Francis next made a league with Venice and the pope for the independence of Italy, and the war with Charles was renewed. Bourbon, acting ostensibly for the emperor, but chiefly for his own glory, marched against Rome with an army composed partly of fanatical Protestants and partly of bandits and adventurers furious as the Huns and mutinous for want of pay. In the assault Bourbon was slain, but the troops fought their way into the city, and a fearful scene of pillage and debauchery ensued. The pope was imprisoned and treated with gross indignities.

The horror aroused throughout Europe by these acts of violence gave Francis a new pretext for invading Italy, but again he met with reverses, and at length, in 1529, both sides having grown weary of the contest, a peace was concluded at Cambrai, called the *ladies' peace* because it was negotiated between the mother of Francis and the aunt of Charles.

The peace of Cambrai lasted until 1536, when war was again renewed. Francis shocked Christendom by entering into an alliance with the Turkish sultan, and Charles with his ally, Henry VIII., arranged for an invasion of France. The defeat of his army at Ceresole, however, did not deter him from marching upon Paris. But the French, roused by their imme-

diate and pressing danger, speedily gathered a new army of militia, and Charles prudently retired to Crespy. Here negotiations for peace were opened, and a treaty was signed in 1544.

Francis died three years later. In all his wars he gained nothing for his subjects but misfortune and misery. He concluded forty treaties of war, peace, or truce, incessantly changing aim and allies, but for all this he could not conquer either the empire or Italy. Outside of the political arena he was more successful. He had a sincere love for literature, science, and art, to which he extended a most liberal patronage. He was succeeded by his son, Henry II., who had all the defects and, with the exception of personal bravery, not one of the brilliant and amiable qualities of his father.

1553. Death of Edward VI. Accession of Mary.

The Council appointed by the will of Henry VIII. to govern during Edward's minority chose, as Protector of the kingdom, Edward's maternal uncle, who received the title of Duke of Somerset. Archbishop Cranmer was a leading member of the Council, and as he and Somerset both favored the Protestant religion, they carefully instructed the young king in this faith.

Edward was a very studious child, possessing a sweet and noble nature and wonderful intelligence. It is said that he had learned seven languages before he reached the age of fourteen. He was also very religious, and was fond of listening to the sermons which the Protestant bishops were accustomed to preach before him.

Henry VIII. expressed in his will a desire that a marriage should be arranged between Edward and young Mary, Queen of Scotland. But the Scots, influenced by France, opposed the match. Somerset, thinking to force their consent, marched an army into Scotland, but was obliged to hasten back to England on re-

ceiving news that a plot had been formed against him at home. The Scots at once sent their young queen to France for safety.

The Protector succeeded in checking the conspiracy raised against him by the execution of his own brother, Admiral Seymour, one of his most dangerous foes. But discontent and rebellion lurked in the hearts of the working-classes, who naturally objected to the enclosure of common lands, which deprived them of their right to pasture their cattle and other animals. This practice of the great land-owners had been a grievance to the poor for a long time.

The alterations in religion were also sources of dissatisfaction. The most important of these changes were,—

1. The Church service was read in English instead of Latin.

2. Images, crosses, and the like were no longer venerated, and in most cases were destroyed.

3. Worship of the Virgin and the saints was given up.

4. Confession to a priest was not to be compulsory.

5. The doctrine of transubstantiation was declared untrue.

6. The clergy were permitted to marry.

These were very serious changes to force upon the people all at once, and instead of dealing gently with the veneration and affection which masses of the people still felt for the old forms and beliefs, the powers in authority pushed on very harshly and persecuted those who would not conform. They even burnt a poor woman for holding some wrong opinions about Christ's incarnation. Bishop Gardiner was committed to the Tower because he would not preach the Protestant doctrines before the king, but he boldly declared that he would speak what he thought if he were to be hanged for it when he left the pulpit.

In 1548, Archbishop Cranmer, assisted by Ridley, Latimer, and other divines, compiled the Liturgy which is still read in the Church of

England. There was very little new in this prayer-book. Nearly all the prayers were abbreviated from the old Latin ones of the mass, but as they were now in English they were as good, or rather as bad, as new in the ears of the unlearned, and the prayer-book was received in some sections of the country with the greatest disfavor. Thousands of the people rose in rebellion when it was read in the churches, but in the end the government conquered and these insurrections were all put down.

For these and other reasons Somerset's administration became so unpopular that he was forced to resign, and, like so many prominent men of his time, he terminated his life upon the scaffold. The Duke of Northumberland now became Protector. He professed to be a zealous Protestant, but he cared more for his own family interests than for religion. Working upon the mind of the young king, who was a most ardent Protestant, Northumberland persuaded him to exclude his sisters Mary and Elizabeth from the succession and to bequeath the crown to Lady Jane Grey, the great-grand-daughter of Henry VII., and wife of Lord Guilford Dudley, Northumberland's own son. Shortly after this had been done the young king died (1553).

Lady Jane Grey was immediately proclaimed queen. She was only sixteen years of age, but very highly accomplished, especially in the study of languages, of which she is said to have mastered seven besides her own. She was brought up a Protestant. Married to Lord Dudley only a short time before Edward's death, she had no idea of the ambitious schemes of her father-in-law, and when he announced to her, on the death of the king, that she was queen of England, she was terribly frightened, and she fell to the floor weeping bitterly. For one short fortnight the unhappy girl acted as queen, but the nation leaned towards Mary as the lawful queen, and when Mary was proclaimed by her supporters she was everywhere acknowledged and accepted.

1558. Death of Queen Mary. Accession of Elizabeth.

Queen Mary was in her thirty-seventh year when she became queen of England. Her young days had been made very bitter by the undeserved disgrace of her mother, Catherine of Aragon, and by the mortifications to which they had both been subjected. Mary was neither beautiful nor clever, but, like all the Tudors, she possessed a strong will. Devoted to the old religion, it was the cherished object of her life to restore the Catholic worship throughout the kingdom.

One of her earliest acts as queen was to imprison Cranmer, Ridley, Latimer, and other Protestants, while Bishops Gardiner and Bonner were released and promoted to great authority. The English prayer-book was at once set aside and the Latin mass said again. Another step towards the accomplishment of her purpose was her marriage in 1554 to Philip of Spain, son of the emperor Charles V. This alliance with the greatest Catholic power in Europe occasioned general dissatisfaction throughout England. The English detested the thought of this match, not alone on account of religion but also because they feared Philip's vast power and wealth would, as it were, swallow up and overpower England, which would sink into being a mere dependency of Spain.

Before the marriage took place a great insurrection broke out in Kent, headed by Sir Thomas Wyatt. Mary behaved liked a queen, and by her bravery kindled a sort of enthusiasm. The Londoners took her part, and when the rebels marched to London they were defeated and their principal leaders were put to death. Lady Jane Grey and her husband, who had been kept prisoners in the Tower, were now beheaded, although they had taken no part in the insurrection.

The statutes against heretics were revived, and a terrible persecution of the Protestants

began. Gardiner and Bonner were Mary's principal supporters and coadjutors in the cruelties that followed. Within three years more than two hundred persons were burned to death for their religion, while thousands suffered in a less degree. Many ministers of the Reformed faith fled to the Continent for safety, among them John Knox, the Scotch reformer; Coverdale, the same who assisted Tyndale* in the translation of the Bible; and Fox, who wrote the "Book of Martyrs." John Rogers, Canon of St. Paul, Bishops Hooper, Ridley, and Latimer, were among the victims of the persecution.

At last came Archbishop Cranmer's turn. Weakened by imprisonment, and tempted by the promise of life and freedom, he signed a recantation of his faith. But the queen would not save the man who had been the enemy of her mother, and notwithstanding his recantation he was led forth to die. Bemoaning his weakness, he prepared to die in the spirit of a Christian martyr, and on his way to the stake he called upon all people to witness that fear and faint-heartedness had made him false to his belief, and that, as "his right hand had offended by writing contrary to his heart, it should first be punished." And when the fire was kindled, he held his right hand in the flames until it was a blackened cinder.

To please her husband Mary joined him in war against France, which had a disastrous end, for Calais, a French fortress which the English had held ever since the reign of Edward III., fell into the hands of its former owners. The news of this event struck a universal dismay throughout England. The queen was so deeply mortified that she said the word Calais would be found after death written upon

* Tyndale began the translation of the Bible in London during the reign of Henry VIII., but receiving no protection or assistance from either the king or Wolsey, he went abroad and settled at Antwerp, where helped by friends he finished the translation. He was afterwards persecuted for his noble work, and in 1535 was put to death at Antwerp as a heretic.

her heart. Her health was failing rapidly. Her husband's neglect preyed deeply upon her mind. During the four years of their married life Philip spent only one year with her in England, and when she died, instead of coming himself to her, he simply sent a message and a ring.

Happily for England, Mary's reign was short. The poor, proud, forsaken woman died in 1558, a few months after the loss of Calais, loved by no one, and hardly pitied as she deserved. She left no children, and was succeeded by her half-sister, Elizabeth.

1558. Charles V. of Germany.

The last emperor of the Middle Ages in Germany, Maximilian I., died in 1519. As he left no son, his grandson, Charles I. of Spain, became at once a candidate for the vacant throne. But the power of the youthful monarch was dreaded by the Electors, and they first offered the crown to Frederick, Duke of Saxony. This extraordinary man refused the honor, and through his counsel the election was determined in favor of Charles, who was crowned at Aix-la-Chapelle as Charles V. in 1520. Charles V. was but twenty-one years old at this time, yet he was the most powerful sovereign in Europe. His dominions embraced Austria, Spain, Naples, the Netherlands, Germany, and the Spanish possessions in America.

The chief events of his reign, besides his struggles with his brilliant rival, Francis I., were his wars with the Turks and with the Protestants of Germany. The name Protestant was first given to the followers of Luther at Spire on account of their *protest* against the decree passed by the representatives of the Catholic states of Germany in 1529, which prohibited the further spread of the new doctrines. The following year the Protestants published at Augsburg their Confession of Faith, which was drawn up by Melancthon, the great friend of Luther, and signed by the Protestant princes. The emperor issued a de-

cree condemning this Confession. The Protestant princes then met at Smalcald and entered into a league for mutual defence. This league represented so much military strength that Charles resolved upon more conciliatory measures. Another reason for adopting a peaceful attitude towards the Protestants just at this time was that he needed their help in driving back the Turks, who had invaded Hungary and were threatening Vienna. A treaty was accordingly entered upon, both parties agreeing to refrain from all hostilities until a general council should be called. The Protestants then contributed their share of troops to the imperial army, and the Turks were driven back from Vienna. Having disposed of these infidels for the present and closed his wars with Francis I., Charles turned his attention towards the extermination of Protestantism. In the year 1545 a general council was convened at Trent. The Protestants rejected the authority of this council, which amused itself by denouncing the doctrines of Luther, and both parties appealed to arms. In the early part of the war the Protestants met with reverses and two of their chief leaders, Frederick of Saxony and Philip, Landgrave of Hesse, fell into the hands of the emperor. Maurice, a kinsman of Frederick and a Protestant, had joined the emperor, but now growing weary of his service he threw off his traitorous mask and took the field at the head of the Protestant confederacy. Sweeping rapidly through Upper Germany with twenty-five thousand men, he moved upon Innsbruck, where Charles lay sick with the gout, and the emperor was compelled to flee in his weak and ailing condition, carried in a litter over the rugged mountain roads. Maurice then laid siege to Frankfort, and compelled the haughty emperor to conclude the peace of Passau, in which he promised to secure the freedom of the Protestant religion and maintain the German constitution. Three years later (1555) the Diet of Augsburg solemnly confirmed this treaty. The same year

Charles conferred on his son, Philip II., the government of the Netherlands, and in January, 1556, resigned to him the crowns of Spain and Naples. He tried to secure the empire for Philip, but without success. Ferdinand, the brother of Charles, was elected in his stead in 1558.

After his abdication Charles sailed for Spain, and hid his weary head within the monastery of St. Just. There under the shadow of the mountains he spent two years, restless and uneasy, and yet taking an interest in political affairs as intense as if the world still rested in his palm. In the last six months of his life, as his body became more and more diseased, his mind became the prey of morbid fancies. One of these fancies was the performance of his own funeral rites. The fatigue and excitement of this ceremony brought on a fit of fever, of which he died (1558).

Charles V. was the first monarch of his time. He made Spain the leading nation of the world, but he died at last without having accomplished the two chief aims of his life,—the reunion of all Christendom under the pope and the union of Germany with the Spanish empire.

1566. The Iconoclasts (Image-Breakers).

The Netherlands, or Low Countries, at the time of the abdication of Charles V., consisted of seventeen fair provinces, and formed the most valuable of the possessions of Philip II. No part of Europe had so many thriving cities or such intelligent, industrious citizens as this little strip of lowland, which would have been overwhelmed by the sea but for the strong dikes which the inhabitants had built for their protection. Though ruled by Philip, their nominal monarch, each province had its own government, and their representatives were only called together when the king wanted a grant of money.

Throughout these provinces the doctrines of

the Reformation had spread rapidly, and Philip determined to root out this heresy. Appointing his half-sister, Margaret, Duchess of Parma, as regent of the Netherlands, he re-enacted the edict of Charles V., which denounced as heretics all who embraced the new doctrines and condemned them to the most severe punishment. The regent was assisted by a council,—half the number devoted to the Spanish interests, while the others were patriot leaders,—Counts Egmont and Horn and the illustrious William, Prince of Orange. These three men, although themselves Catholics, protested against the cruelties that were now practised upon their fellow-countrymen, but in vain. At length a party of the nobles, led by Count Brederode, marched to the palace of the regent at Brussels and presented a petition that the edict might be abolished and the persecutions cease. The duchess becoming agitated during the audience, one of her courtiers exclaimed in a passion, "Is it possible, madam, that you are afraid of these beggars?" The gibe was destined to become immortal, for the confederacy was ever afterwards called "*Les Gueux*,"—The Beggars.

When Philip was apprised of what had occurred at Brussels he took no notice of it except to devise means to strengthen the Inquisition. And now a startling series of events took place which exercised a fatal influence upon the situation of the provinces.

The Netherlands possessed an extraordinary number of churches. All that art could embody or wealth could lavish gathered around these magnificent temples. But the statues with which they were peopled, associated as they were with the remorseless persecution which had so long desolated the provinces, had ceased to be images and had grown human and hateful in the eyes of the people.

About the middle of August (1566) there occurred a religious festival at Antwerp, and according to custom a colossal image of the Virgin was carried through the streets. The proces-

sion was followed by a rabble rout of scoffers, who saluted the image with sneers and the rudest ribaldry. The next two days the cathedral was filled with a crowd of vagabonds and idlers bent upon mischief. On the evening of the second day the magistrates of the city, who had gone to the cathedral in the vain hope of dispersing the mob, left the church, and their departure hastened the catastrophe. Instead of evening mass rose the fierce music of a psalm yelled by a thousand angry voices. A party of fanatics armed with hammers suddenly sprang from the crowd and began the work of destruction. Every statue was hauled from its niche; every picture torn from the walls; every ancient monument shattered by these furious iconoclasts, while the crowd gazed in stupid dismay or cool indifference. They overthrew the seventy altars of the vast edifice, demolished the organ,—the largest in the world,—drank the sacramental wine, and covered their own squalid attire with the gorgeous robes of the priests. At midnight they left the cathedral with little more than bare walls standing and sallied forth with howls of "Long live the Beggars!" to deal in like manner with the other churches of the city. Before morning they had sacked thirty churches.

From Antwerp the excitement spread over the northern provinces, and in the short space of six or seven days the treasures of nearly every church in the Netherlands were destroyed.

It is a significant fact that throughout all this storm of pillage and destruction not a man or woman was injured.

The number of churches desecrated has never been exactly known, but in Flanders alone four hundred were sacked.

Catholics and Protestants seemed overcome with wonder as the tempest swept over the land, while the ministers of the Reformed faith bitterly regretted such excesses.

When Philip heard the news he fell into a paroxysm of rage. "It shall cost them dear," he cried; "I swear it by the soul of my father!"

Subsequent events proved that his words were not an idle threat.

1566. Soliman the Magnificent.

About the beginning of the thirteenth century a band of Turks emigrated from the heart of Asia westward into Asia Minor. There they founded a kingdom, which by the close of the century became, under Othman, or Osman, the most powerful in Western Asia. These Ottoman Turks, so called from their leader, Othman, gradually extended their conquests until, in 1453, they took Constantinople from the Greeks, and on the ruins of the Greek empire founded the Turkish empire in Europe.

Soliman I., surnamed the Magnificent, became sultan in 1520. This great monarch first displayed his military abilities in his wars for the conquest of Hungary. In 1521 he captured the powerful fortress of Belgrade, long a bulwark of Christendom against the Turks. He next directed his victorious arms against the island of Rhodes, the seat of the Knights Hospitallers. Overwhelming numbers compelled the garrison to surrender, and, receiving honorable terms of capitulation, the Knights retired to the island of Malta.

During the long and desolating wars with Hungary Soliman besieged Vienna (1529). But the city was saved by the persistent bravery of its defenders, and Soliman retired, it is said, with a curse upon any of his descendants who should attempt to renew the enterprise against Vienna.

The warlike energies of the Turks were next directed against Persia, and Soliman added to the Turkish dominions large territories in Mesopotamia and Armenia. The greatness of the Ottoman empire at this time was due not only to the conquests of the Turkish armies, but also to the achievements of the navy, which extended the power and renown of the sultan all along the Mediterranean and in the Indian Ocean.

The most celebrated of the Turkish naval commanders was Barbarossa, through whom the piratical states of Northern Africa were brought under the sovereignty of the sultan.

In 1565 the Turks laid siege to the island of Malta, which the Knights had fortified, and from which an incessant warfare was carried on against the Turks. The siege lasted from May until September, but the chivalrous bravery of the besieged withstood every attack, and the discomfited Turks were at last compelled to retire. This memorable siege is said to have cost the lives of twenty-five thousand Turks and five thousand of the Christian defenders. This defeat was the heaviest blow and most humiliating disappointment the sultan had experienced since the unsuccessful siege of Vienna.

Although now an old man, Soliman resolved to renew his Hungarian wars, and in 1566 he marched to Szigeth, a Hungarian fortress which had baffled the attacks of the Turks on former occasions. This siege is memorable for the heroic resistance of Zriny, the Hungarian commander. When all the exterior defences were destroyed and only a single tower remained, in which were Zriny and six hundred of his men,—all that were yet alive,—Zriny resolved to anticipate the last charge of the Turks. Filling a large mortar with broken iron and musket-balls, he aimed it point-blank at the door-way. When the Turks rushed up, the door was thrown open, the mortar was fired, and amid the smoke and unexpected carnage Zriny and his followers sprang forth among the Turks to die. The enemy fired the citadel, and while they lingered in search of treasure the stores of powder beneath the tower exploded, and three thousand of the destroyers sank in the ruins.

While this siege was in progress and before the final attack, the sultan, enfeebled by age and disease, died in his tent (1566). The Ottoman empire reached the zenith of its power during his reign. No subsequent sultan has

maintained the wealth and prosperity which the Turkish empire enjoyed under Soliman the Magnificent.

1571. Battle of Lepanto.

During the reign of Selim II., the successor of Soliman the Magnificent, the Turks attacked and captured the island of Cyprus, at that time a dependency of the Venetian republic. The fall of Cyprus, the treachery and cruelty of its attack, and the great preparations for war which were being made at the Turkish seaports, raised great and anxious alarm all along the Christian shores of the Mediterranean, and a maritime league was formed against the Turks, of which the Spaniards, the Venetians, and the Knights of Malta were the chief members. These Christian powers fitted out a great armament, placing at the head of it Don John of Austria, who had figured prominently in the war with the Netherlands. He had previously won great military celebrity in wars which the Spanish had carried on with the Barbary corsairs and with the Moors of Granada.

The allied fleets, consisting of three hundred vessels, sailed from Messina in the autumn of 1571. Reaching the entrance to the Gulf of Lepanto on the 7th of October, they came in sight of the Ottoman fleet. Six hundred vessels of war met face to face. Since the day when the world had been lost and won beneath the famous promontory of Actium no such combat as the one now approaching had been fought upon the waves. Don John rowed from ship to ship exhorting his generals and soldiers to show themselves worthy of the cause for which they were about to fight.

Before the battle began there was a pause, during which each fleet lay motionless regarding with admiration and secret awe the strength and splendor of its adversary's array. At length the Turkish admiral gave the signal for attack, and the battle began. Four hours of desperate

fighting, and the day was won for the allies and Christendom. Of nearly three hundred Turkish galleys only fifty made their escape, while nearly thirty thousand Turks were slain. The Turkish admiral's ship was among those that were destroyed, and the admiral's head was exposed from Don John's deck as a trophy. More than twelve thousand Christian captives who had been chained to the oars on the Turkish galleys were set free. The loss of the allies was about eight thousand.

This victory was the first effective blow given to the power of the Turks, who had hitherto been thought invincible by sea, and it caused the most profound joy throughout Christendom.

1572. Massacre of St. Bartholomew's Day.

The doctrines of the Reformation began to spread through France during the reign of Francis I. Both Francis and his successor, Henry II., opposed the new religious movement, and they enacted the most severe laws against the Huguenots, as the French Protestants were called. In spite of persecution the Huguenots steadily increased in numbers, and when Francis II. succeeded Henry they included in their ranks the King of Navarre, the Prince of Condé, Admiral Coligny, and many others of high birth and influence.

Francis II., who had married Mary, Queen of Scots, was entirely under the control of his wife's uncles, the Duke of Guise and the Cardinal of Lorraine. These two brothers made themselves so offensive to the Huguenots by their efforts to extirpate the Reformed religion and secure absolute power in the government that a conspiracy headed by Condé was formed against them. But the plot was discovered, and hundreds of persons connected with it were put to death. Condé was tried and condemned, and he would have perished but for the death of the king (1560).

Francis was succeeded by his brother, Charles IX., a boy of ten years. The queen-mother, Catherine de Medici, displacing the Guises, assumed control of the government. There was a momentary lull in the persecutions. The Huguenots were allowed freedom of worship, but this tolerant measure had scarcely gone into effect when a massacre of Huguenots took place at Vassy (1562). A terrible civil and religious war then broke out. Condé and Coligny became the chief leaders of the Huguenots, while the Duke of Guise headed the Catholic party. Three times the war closed only to be renewed with greater fury.

Both sides were guilty of great cruelties and excesses, although the Huguenots suffered most. During the war the Duke of Guise was assassinated and Condé and the King of Navarre were killed. Victorious and vanquished by turns, both parties at length became anxious for peace, and accordingly in 1570 a treaty was concluded at St. Germain, which allowed the Huguenots their civil rights and freedom of worship, and gave them four cities, Rochelle among the number, as security for the fulfilment of the treaty.

The Huguenot leaders mistrusted the sincerity of Catherine in granting these favorable terms, but they were thrown off their guard by her next move. It was arranged that the young King of Navarre, a Protestant, should marry the king's sister, Margaret, and thus cement the union of the rival parties. Coligny, the young Prince of Condé, and the other leading Huguenots were invited to Paris to attend the wedding, which took place on the 18th of August, 1572. Four days later, as Coligny was walking upon the street, an assassin fired at him, wounding him in each arm. The king paid him a visit of pretended condolence, declaring that he would avenge the outrage. Meanwhile, a horrible plot to massacre all the Huguenots in the country had been arranged by Catherine de Medici, and the wretched king, urged by his

stony-hearted mother, now yielded his consent to the perpetration of the crime.

Saturday, the day after the attempted assassination of Coligny, passed quietly. Between two and three o'clock Sunday morning—St. Bartholomew's day—a band of armed men broke open the door of Coligny's house, murdered the wounded man, and threw his body from the window. The young Duke of Guise, who waited in the court below, wiped the blood from the features, and exclaiming, "It is he!" spurned the body with his foot. And now the great bell of the palace and the church bells began to ring. It was the signal for slaughter. Bands of armed Catholics with white crosses on their hats filled the streets and struck down the defenceless Huguenots as they fled from their homes. "Kill all! Leave not a single one to reproach me," had been the order of the king. Condé and Navarre were spared by professing to renounce the Reformed faith. The massacres extended to the provinces, though in some places the authorities refused to execute the cruel order.

The number of victims cannot accurately be determined, historians differing widely upon this point, but it is probable that at least thirty thousand Huguenots were slain.

Charles IX. died two years later, the victim of a terrible remorse for the crimes which had been committed with his sanction. But the burden of guilt rests undoubtedly upon his mother, Catherine de Medici, through whose intrigues the plot was carried into execution.

1574. The Siege of Leyden.

In the summer of 1567 Philip II., mindful of his promise, sent to the Netherlands an army of Spaniards commanded by the Duke of Alva, a pitiless monster, who had full powers to put down resistance with fire and sword. At his approach thousands of the Dutch fled from

the country, among them William, Prince of Orange, who was unable as yet to organize an effective movement against the cruel and perfidious king. The nobles Egmont and Horn, who remained behind, were seized and put to death by Alva. Margaret, the regent, now resigned, and Alva became governor-general. Organizing the "Council of Blood," Alva passed a decree ordering the entire population of the Netherlands, with a few exceptions, to be put to death! Although this monstrous order was not literally carried out, it removed all protection of law from the people, and Alva boasted on his return to Spain that *eighteen thousand* people had been put to death during his administration.

Meanwhile the Prince of Orange had not been idle. The four provinces of Holland, Zealand, Friesland, and Utrecht declared him their lawful "stadtholder," or lieutenant, in the absence of the king, and, supported by these provinces and by his brother John, William took up arms in defence of his oppressed country. Fleets were equipped along the coast, manned by brave "Sea Beggars," and important maritime towns were taken. Everywhere the Dutch rose against the Spanish, and a general war for independence began.

In 1574 the Spaniards laid siege to the city of Leyden. They drew a circle of sixty-two forts around the devoted place, and then sat down to wait until the inhabitants were starved into surrender. But the citizens resolved to die rather than admit their cruel foes, and they called from the ramparts, "So long as you hear a cat mew or a dog bark you may know that we hold out." Five months passed. Famine stalked through the silent streets of Leyden, but still the poor pinched inhabitants held out. At last the Prince of Orange, who had used every effort to help his brave countrymen, seeing no other way of rescue, cut the dikes and flooded the country around Leyden. Over cornfields, meadows, and villages came the foaming billows, and as they

dashed into the Spanish forts the soldiers fled in dismay and terror. The boats of the brave "Sea Beggars," driven by a friendly gale, sailed triumphantly into Leyden with abundant food for the starving inhabitants.

The happy deliverance of Leyden was a great disaster to the Spanish arms; but the end was not yet. In 1576 Requesens, who had been appointed successor to the Duke of Alva, died suddenly, and his unpaid soldiery, left without a leader and maddened for want of pay, surprised and plundered the city of Antwerp, burnt five hundred houses, and put several thousand of the inhabitants to the sword.

These fresh distresses caused the provinces to unite themselves by a treaty called the Pacification of Ghent for the purpose of expelling the Spaniards. Unfortunately, this league was soon disorganized through the disaffection of some of the nobles, who were jealous of the fame of the Prince of Orange. Through the skilful generalship of the young Spanish commander, the Prince of Parma, the southern provinces were reduced to subjection. But seven of the northern provinces were determined to be free, and in 1579 the Union of Utrecht laid the foundation of the *Dutch Republic*. William of Orange was chosen stadtholder. He was assassinated five years later by an emissary of the King of Spain.

The independence of the seven provinces was not acknowledged by Spain until 1609.

1580. Annexation of Portugal to Spain.

The kingdom of Portugal was founded by Dom Alfonso in 1139. Dom Sancho I., his successor, was a man of great valor and ability, and during his reign Portugal was raised to a high pitch of prosperity and its area was extended to its present dimensions. Of Sancho's successors the most distinguished was John I., who came to the throne in 1385. During his

reign the Portuguese discovered Madeira and the Azores and became the most enterprising maritime people in Europe. They undertook daring and difficult voyages along the entire west coast of Africa, and in 1497 discovered the passage to the East Indies by the Cape of Good Hope. Had it not been for the meanness of King John II. when Columbus applied to him for aid, the Portuguese might have had the honor of discovering the New World. After the discovery of the passage to the East Indies the Portuguese extended their commerce and dominion in Africa and the East Indies, and for nearly a century they were masters of the Indian Ocean. King John III. planted colonies in Brazil, which had been discovered by Cabral in 1500. Sebastian, the successor of John III., distinguished himself for his quixotic expeditions into Morocco. In the last of these raids (1577-78) his army was destroyed, and Sebastian was never heard of afterwards. This disaster effectually broke the power of Portugal. Philip II. of Spain, taking advantage of the anarchy and disorder which prevailed in the country, annexed it to Spain, and for sixty years Portugal was held in subjection to the Spanish monarchy.

1587. Mary, Queen of Scots.

This unfortunate princess, about whose history such mournful interest lingers, was the great-grand-daughter of Henry VII. of England and the daughter of James V. of Scotland. She was educated in France, and at the age of sixteen was married to the Dauphin of France, afterwards Francis II. When Francis died, Mary returned to Scotland (1561). The Scots were at first disposed to receive their youthful queen with affection, for she was beautiful and highly accomplished, but her religion (she had been educated in the Roman Catholic faith) soon awakened hostility, and the introduction of the

reckless gayeties and frivolities of France into the court of Scotland highly offended the Reformers, who were very strict and stern. A few years after her return Mary married her cousin, Lord Darnley, with whom she lived very unhappily on account of his dissolute habits. The queen's private secretary, Rizzio, became the object of Darnley's jealousy, and one evening, accompanied by several noblemen, Darnley rushed into Mary's apartment, where she was engaged at supper with Rizzio and others, dragged the unfortunate man from the room and murdered him. The following year Darnley's house was blown up with gunpowder and his body found lifeless beside the ruins. The suspicion that Mary was accessory to this crime seemed to be confirmed by her marriage three months later to the Earl of Bothwell, Darnley's reputed murderer.

These events estranged from Mary the love of her subjects, and she was seized and imprisoned in Lochleven Castle. After eleven months' captivity she escaped and threw herself upon the protection of Elizabeth of England. Instead of treating her with generous hospitality, Elizabeth at once threw her into prison. There she remained eighteen long years. The Catholics of England looked upon Mary as a beautiful and persecuted saint, and numerous plots were made for her rescue, but none succeeded. At length a plot to assassinate Elizabeth and place Mary upon the throne brought matters to a crisis. The conspiracy was discovered, and the unhappy Queen of Scotland was tried as an accomplice. She declared herself innocent, but she was pronounced guilty and condemned to death. Elizabeth shrunk from executing the sentence, but at last she gave a sullen consent and flung the death-warrant, signed, upon the floor. It was sent immediately to Fotheringhay Castle, where Mary was imprisoned, and there in one of the castle halls, in the forty-fifth year of her age, Mary Stuart was beheaded.

1589. Death of Henry III. Accession of Henry IV.

Henry III. succeeded to the French throne in 1574. He had been elected king of Poland in 1573, but the death of his brother, Charles IX., made him king of France, and he immediately returned to Paris. Henry III. was a man of weak and dissolute character, and entirely unfit to rule France at this critical period. The Huguenots were fast recovering from the misfortunes of the previous reign and were becoming very powerful under their leaders, Henry of Navarre and the Prince of Condé. The Catholics taking alarm now formed the celebrated "League" for the defence of their cause and the extermination of Protestantism. The Leaguers were commanded by the Duke of Guise, aided by the king, and the Huguenots by Henry of Navarre. For twelve years (1576 to 1588) there were alternations of war, truce, and precarious peace. At length the king, who had at first aided the cause of the League, became enraged at the insolence and ambition of the Duke of Guise and caused him and his brother, Cardinal of Guise, to be assassinated. This act roused the fury of the Leaguers, and Henry had no resource but to turn to the Huguenots for aid. A treaty was concluded with Henry of Navarre, and then the two kings laid siege to Paris, which was in the hands of the Leaguers.

While the siege was in progress a fanatical monk gained admission to the royal apartments and assassinated the king. Henry III. was the last king of the house of Valois. By his death Henry of Navarre, the leader of the Huguenots and the lawful heir to the throne, became king with the title of Henry IV.

1598. Philip II. of Spain.

Philip II. was the son of Charles V., Emperor of Germany, and the great-grandson of Ferdinand and Isabella. He was carefully educated,

and he showed some taste for mathematics and architecture. Even in childhood he was thoughtful, cautious, and reserved. His father kept him surrounded by able statesmen, who early familiarized him with ideas of government. At the age of sixteen he married his cousin, the Infanta Maria of Portugal, who died within two years. He afterwards married Mary, Queen of England, but Philip's extreme coldness and indifference towards the wife chosen merely for motives of policy made the marriage a very unhappy one.

Soon after his accession to the throne Philip engaged in war with the French, who had invaded his Italian dominions. The Duke of Alva, one of Philip's most able generals, soon drove the French out of Italy. Philip meanwhile prosecuted hostilities in the northern provinces of France. In 1557 the great battle of St. Quentin was fought, in which two-thirds of the French army were killed or taken prisoners. Other victories over the French rapidly followed, and the French king, Henry II., acceded to terms of peace. In commemoration of the victory of St. Quentin, which occurred on the anniversary of the martyrdom of St. Lawrence, to whom Philip ascribed his victory, he built the Escorial, the most magnificent royal residence and mausoleum in Europe. St. Lawrence suffered martyrdom by being broiled on a gridiron, and by a quaint conceit the ground-plan of the Escorial is in the form of a gridiron, with handle and bars complete. Twenty-one years and fifteen millions of dollars were expended in building it. The most striking feature of the edifice is the church. Porphyry and marble of the richest description incrust the walls. Directly under the high altar is a mausoleum in which repose the remains of all the sovereigns of Spain since Charles V.

Philip's main object in life was the support of the Roman Catholic religion. He used to say, "Better not reign at all than reign over heretics." He used every means to extinguish Protestantism throughout his dominions, but in

the Netherlands, where the Reformation had spread most rapidly, his efforts signally failed. During the war with the Netherlands Philip was also occupied with hostilities against the Turks. The memorable siege of the island of Malta by the Turks was raised in 1565 by forces sent from Sicily. The Turks were also defeated at Lepanto by Philip's brother, Don John of Austria.

After the death of the Prince of Orange Philip bent his energies towards the conquest of England, and for this purpose sent out the "Invincible Armada," but this vast armament, the proudest and finest the world had ever seen, was wrecked off the Orkney Islands after ineffectual attempts to land upon the English coast (1588). When Philip heard of this terrible disaster he said, "The will of God be done. I sent my ships to fight with the English and not with the elements." This ended his hopes of conquering England.

He died in 1598. Through his cruel bigotry he lost a great portion of one of his most valuable possessions,—the Netherlands,—while his ruinous and unsuccessful wars impoverished his country and left it greatly lowered in the estimation of the other nations of Europe.

1599. Edmund Spenser.

Edmund Spenser, one of England's greatest poets, was born in London about 1553. He was educated at Cambridge. After leaving the university he went to live in the north of England, where he wrote his "Shepheard's Calendar." He afterwards returned to London and was introduced to Sir Philip Sidney, who became his friend and patron. About 1580 Spenser was appointed secretary to Lord Grey, the queen's deputy to Ireland. For his services Spenser received a grant of land in the county of Cork. In 1586 he went to reside upon his estate at Kilcolman Castle. Here he composed most of

his great poem, the "Faerie Queene." After the death of Sidney, which Spenser commemorates in his elegy "Astrophel," Sir Walter Raleigh became his principal patron. He was visited by Raleigh in 1589, who persuaded him to return to London and arrange for the publication of his poem. Spenser accordingly accompanied Raleigh to London, and was presented by him to Queen Elizabeth, to whom the first three books of the "Faerie Queene" were dedicated. It is said that Elizabeth was so pleased with the poem that she ordered one hundred pounds to be given to the poet. But Lord Burleigh, thinking, as many statesmen have thought from time immemorial, that literary men are not deserving of such large rewards, remonstrated with his royal mistress. "What," said he, "all this for a song?" "Give him, then, what is reason," said the queen, already repenting her generosity; and Burleigh, acting upon this order, and guided by his own taste and feeling, gave Spenser nothing. Spenser, to whom the conversation had been told, waited for some time with patience, but at length presented his petition:

"I was promised on a time to have *reason* for my rhyme; Since that time, until this season, I have had nor rhyme nor reason."

Elizabeth's ready wit perceived the point of the rhyme, and she forthwith ordered the hundred pounds to be paid.

Spenser subsequently returned to Ireland, where he wrote "Colin Clout's come Home Again," in honor of Raleigh, and three more books of the "Faerie Queene." The latter part of his life is wrapped in doubt and obscurity. Some records say that during Tyrone's rebellion Kilcolman Castle was burned by the rebels, Spenser and his wife escaping with difficulty, while their youngest child perished in the flames. Spenser died in London in 1599 and was buried near Chaucer in Westminster Abbey. His chief poem, the "Faerie Queene," is unfinished. It was the last great poem of chivalry, and was received with enthusiasm in the adventurous age of Elizabeth. Spenser is scarcely surpassed as a master of musical language. In the judgment of Hallam his is still the third name in the poetic literature of England.

ENGLISH LIFE DURING THE SIXTEENTH CENTURY.*

THE TUDOR PERIOD.—1485-1603.

Literature, Science, Useful Arts, etc.

The language of the earlier part of this period spoken and written by the English people has been called the "Middle English." It was slightly different from that used in Chaucer's

"Canterbury Tales," and lasted until the reign of Elizabeth, during which the language reached very nearly the state in which it now exists.

With the cessation of the Wars of the Roses learning revived, especially the study of the classics. Erasmus, a Dutchman, who was professor of Greek at Oxford in the early part of the sixteenth century, greatly encouraged the study of the Greek, Latin, and Hebrew languages. The

* The English have been chosen for these sketches because of their pre-eminence, socially and politically, among European nations, and also because of their close relationship to the American people.

whole of the present period may be called the Learned Age. Henry VIII. was an elegant Latin scholar. His son, Edward VI., received a school-mastering fit for a bishop, and so also did his daughters Mary and Elizabeth, who were proficient in Latin, French, and Spanish. Elizabeth was a good Greek scholar too, and even after she became queen read, as her old tutor, Roger Ascham, said, "more Greek in a day than some clergymen read of Latin in a week." She could converse with the learned professors at Oxford in Greek in the most easy and graceful manner. It became fashionable for the gay beaux and belles of Elizabeth's court to study Greek and Latin, but these novel accomplishments did not help to improve the national literature and taste, or the morals of the courtiers.

The fashion of founding schools and colleges which began in the fifteenth century continued to prevail in the sixteenth. Cardinal Wolsey, who founded Cardinal (now Christ Church) College in 1525, was a magnificent patron of learning and the arts. For this Erasmus highly extols him. Among the eminent scholars of the time were Sir Thomas More, Archbishop Cranmer, Cardinal Pole, John Knox, John Leland, Dr. Thomas Linacre, Lord Surrey, and Dr. Colet. Of somewhat later celebrity are Roger Ascham, Dr. Haddon, Archbishop Parker, and others. Among the many brilliant writers of Elizabeth's time may be mentioned Sir Philip Sidney, author of a prose romance called "*Arcadia*;" Edmund Spenser, who wrote the "*Faerie Queene*;" the illustrious William Shakespeare, prince of poets; Francis Bacon, whose writings laid the foundation of modern philosophy; and Richard Hooker, author of the "*Ecclesiastical Polity*," a most dignified and elegant prose composition. It is worthy of notice that prose composition—a form always subsequent to that of verse in the development of a national language—began for the first time to be carefully cultivated during this period.

The sixteenth century is distinguished from the fifteenth almost as the day is from the night in respect to the activity and advancement of the nation in every field of enterprise. The discoveries of Columbus and other navigators gave a wonderful impetus to commerce. Henry VII. encouraged maritime adventure, and English ships were seen ploughing every sea. In Mary's reign Archangel was discovered and trade was opened with Russia. Commerce advanced with rapid strides in the days of Elizabeth. Trade with the Netherlands especially extended rapidly. Vast quantities of fine and coarse draperies, the finest wool, saffron, lead and tin, sheep- and rabbit-skins, leather, beer, cheese, and provisions of various kinds were exported to the Netherlands.

Another species of adventure in which the English began to engage during Elizabeth's reign was the whale-fishery at Cape Breton, Spitzbergen, and Iceland. It appears that the oil was the only thing for which the whale was then valued, at least there is no mention at this early date of any trade in the fins or in whalebone.

The advance in the art of agriculture was not very great. Clover was, however, in the reign of Elizabeth introduced from the Netherlands. Its great value consisted in supplying green food where natural pastures were scarce, thus enabling the farmer to keep more cattle.

The introduction of the turnip subsequently was of still greater value in this direction. The art of gardening received greater improvement during this period than that of agriculture. Salads, hops, cabbages, and gooseberries were introduced from the Netherlands, and cultivated successfully in English gardens.

The manufacture of woollen cloth preserved its old pre-eminence, and the trade in worsteds and yarns flourished. A frame for weaving stockings was invented about 1589 by William Lee, but not receiving encouragement at home Lee carried his improvement to France. The manufacture of

woollen caps, which had formerly been a flourishing business, now began to decline, and felt hats came into general favor.

Manners and Customs of the English.

The English of this period were great lovers of processions and pageants, and whenever the king or queen paid a visit to a certain town the inhabitants exhausted their resources in public entertainments in honor of the royal visitor. They were very fond of noises, such as the beating of drums, and one writer tells us that sometimes when a number of men had gotten a glass of ale too much, they would go up into some church tower and ring the bell for hours together. Miracle plays, mysteries, and masquerading were all favorite methods of entertainment. These were the forerunners of the English drama. The first regular theatres in London were merely large wooden booths. There was no stage setting,—no scenery, and to assist the imagination of the audience a placard was suspended in front of the stage announcing the time and place in which the play was supposed to be going on. All the actors were men, some of course dressed to take women's parts, but all wore the every-day attire of the period, not attempting to dress to represent the characters they sustained. The shifts of Bottom and his companions so humorously portrayed by Shakespeare were not burlesques of the times, but the experiences of numberless actors of the period. Plays were at first acted only on Sunday, but they became so popular that the theatres were finally open every day except Wednesday. This was reserved for the elevating (?) sport of bull-baiting, which had become as much a national sport as base-ball is in our times. There were no reserved seats in the theatre,—no proscenium-boxes. The ultra-fashionable part of the audience hired stools upon the stage, where they smoked and chatted before and during the intervals of the play. As there was but one performance a day, and the tastes of all classes had

to be gratified, the clown was as important a personage as the hero.

The English celebrated numberless festivals during the year. The greatest of all was Christmas. As soon as these holidays arrived all work was thrown aside. Instead of the devotional exercises with which other countries commemorate this sacred time, in England all was mirth and jollity. Feasts and frolics were indulged in by everybody, even the gravest and most serious persons. In every neighborhood a Lord of Misrule was chosen to preside over the sports of the occasion. On Christmas-eve immense Yule-logs were dragged into the homes and placed on the hearth. If the log burnt all night and the next day, it was a happy omen for the household. The festival of May-day was next in importance to Christmas. A large tree stripped of its branches was brought in from the woods at early morn, decorated, and set up on the village green. The young folks danced and leaped around it to their hearts' content, and then all fell to feasting and frolicking for the remainder of the day.

In-doors there were evidences of advancing civilization. Instead of the pallets of straw or rushes, the wealthy classes, at least, began to sleep on beds of down covered with blankets and linen sheets. Their bedsteads were very large and elaborately carved. At the table there was also a striking improvement over the customs of earlier days. The platters of wood and pewter, the huge joints of beef, the swarms of jesters, had all disappeared from the dining-hall. The table was covered with a handsome cloth, and set with a great variety of meats, fruits, cakes, and wines. The greater the amount of food upon the table, as regarded variety, the more elegant the entertainment.

Knives were used about 1563, but the fork, the great assistant to table etiquette, seems to have been a slow development. After the food was cut upon the plate, it was conveyed to the mouth by the left hand. This may have been

the reason guests washed their hands before they dined and perfumed them with rose-water or some other toilet preparation. The food of the poorer classes consisted chiefly of bread, meat, and ale or beer.

A great addition to the ladies' toilet was the looking-glass, which now came into use. Mirrors of polished steel had been used previously, but they were quite small,—merely hand-mirrors, and scarcely available for all purposes of the toilet. The privilege of seeing a reflection of her costume at full length now became possible to a belle of the period. The costume of the ladies of Elizabeth's time was distinguished especially by the immense ruffs worn around the neck and the huge farthingale which was so disfiguring. Sometimes gowns were cut square in the neck, and were open down the front to show the kirtle, or petticoat. Waistcoats were frequently worn by both sexes.

During Elizabeth's reign fair hair became fashionable, and the ladies of the court used to dye their locks to gain the favorite color. One great essential to beauty was entirely overlooked,—the teeth were not properly cared for, and it was most common to see ladies of beautiful form and face with teeth black and decayed. This was, no doubt, due partly to their fondness for sugar and confections and partly to excessive smoking. Smoking was a vice common not merely to the male sex but indulged in greatly by the ladies of the period.

Stockings of knitted silk and worsted came into use in Elizabeth's reign. Great quantities of jewelry were worn. Head-dresses were in a great variety of shapes,—as great as at the present day, but possibly more absurd.

The dress generally worn by men consisted of a short doublet and trunk-hose. The lower part of the trunk-hose came later to be called the stockings. Over the doublet was sometimes worn a cloak. Caps and broad hats covered with feathers were equally fashionable among the gentry. The men wore a great many frills and furbelows, trying to look as effeminate as possible. Some fops wishing to appear brave in the eyes of their feminine admirers wore little patches upon their faces as if to hide scars won in battle, and occasionally some addle-pated exquisite would be seen carrying his arm in a sling, pretending to have had it broken in some lordly quarrel.

In the year 1564 coaches began to appear. Previous to this time both men and women had travelled about on horseback, or sometimes in a rude wagon without springs. For the sick a litter slung between two horses was used. The first coach was made by a Dutchman, and great was the astonishment its appearance aroused. One is thus described: "A coach was a strange monster. Some said it was a great crab-shell brought out of China; and some imagined it to be one of the Pagan temples in which the cannibals adored the devil."

But people soon became accustomed to luxuries, and in a short while so many coaches were manufactured that leather for other purposes became scarce.

As late as the reigns of Henry VII. and Henry VIII. the bow continued the weapon of defence in the English army, but towards the end of Elizabeth's reign gunpowder came into general use, revolutionizing methods of warfare.

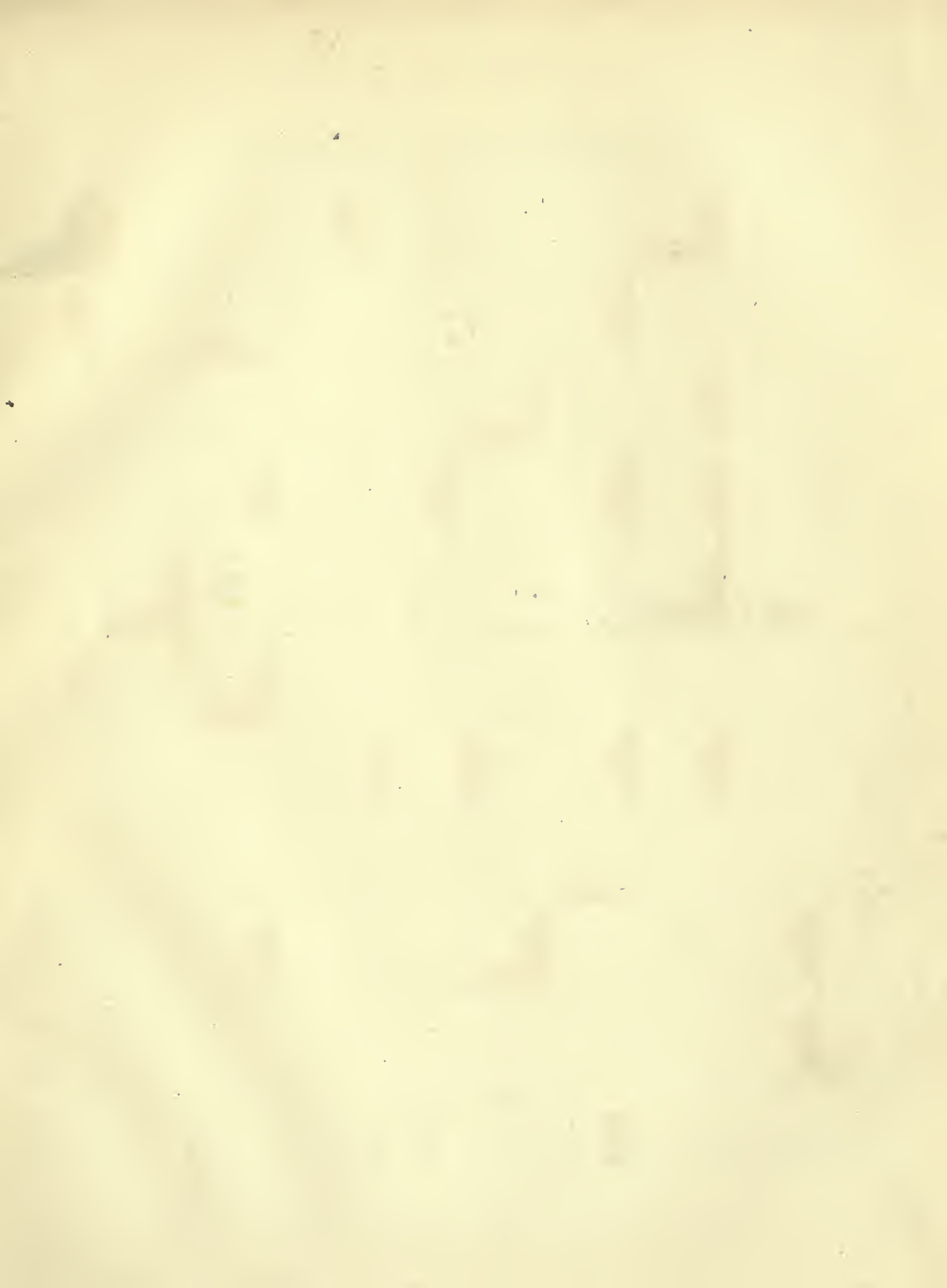
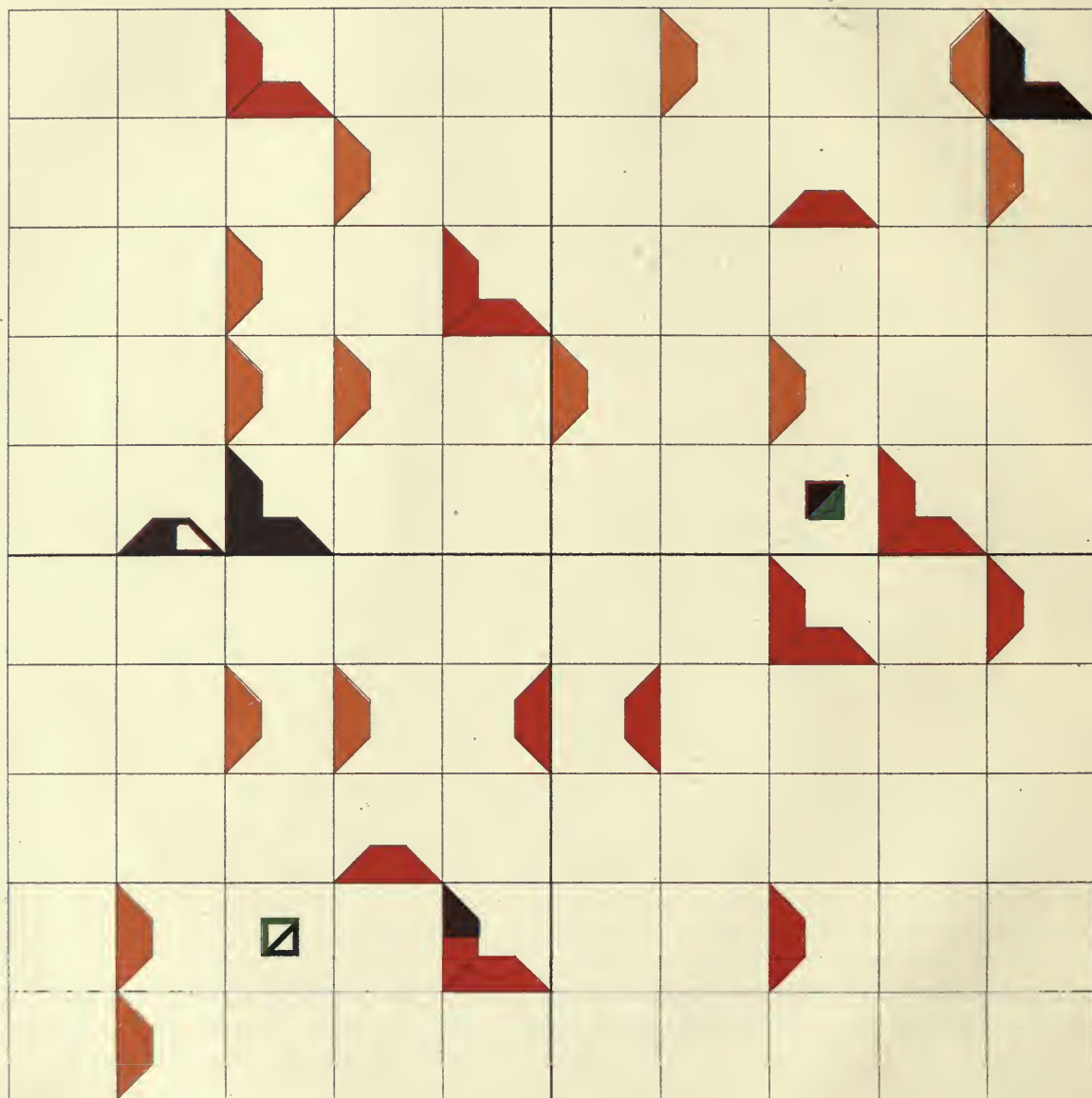









CHART OF XVII CENTURY.



- | | | | |
|---|----------------|---|---------|
|  | England. |  | Turkey. |
|  | United States. |  | Poland. |
|  | Germany. |  | Italy. |
|  | France. | | |

*See Explanation of Chart
on page 9.*

SEVENTEENTH CENTURY.

CHRONOLOGY.

- 1603.** Elizabeth I. of England died; she was succeeded by James VI. of Scotland, who thus became James I. of the United Kingdom.—*Froude, Eng.*, vol. xii. p. 580; *Green, Eng.*, p. 453.
- 1607.** The first permanent settlement in North America was made by the English at **Jamestown, Virginia**.—*Bry. U. S.*, vol. i. p. 269.
- 1609.** The **Hudson River** was discovered by Henry Hudson.—*Bry. U. S.*, vol. i. p. 351.
- 1610.** Henry IV. of France was assassinated and his son, Louis XIII., succeeded to the throne.—*White, France*, p. 296.
- 1614.** **New York** was settled by the Dutch at New Amsterdam.—*Bry. U. S.*, vol. i. p. 359; *Irv. Knick. N. Y.*, ch. viii.
- 1618.** Sir Walter Raleigh was beheaded.—*Bright, Eng.*, p. 601.
- 1620.** **Massachusetts** was settled by the Puritans at New Plymouth.—*Bry. U. S.*, vol. i. p. 387.
- 1623.** **New Hampshire** was settled at Portsmouth and Dover by the English.—*Bry. U. S.*, vol. i. p. 333.
- 1625.** James I. of England died; he was succeeded by his son, Charles I.—*Pict. Eng.*, vol. iii. p. 2; *Green, Eng.*, p. 486.
- 1633.** **Connecticut** was settled by the English at Windsor.—*Loss. U. S.*, p. 82; *Bry. U. S.*, vol. i. p. 548.
- 1634.** **Maryland** was settled by Lord Baltimore.—*Bry. U. S.*, vol. i. p. 490.
- 1636.** **Rhode Island** was settled by Roger Williams.—*Loss. U. S.*, p. 89.
- 1638.** **Delaware** was settled by the Swedes.—*Loss. U. S.*, p. 92.
- 1642.** Cardinal Richelieu died.—*James, Louis XIV.*, vol. i. p. 19; *White, France*, p. 311.
- 1642.** Galileo, the great Italian philosopher, died.
- 1643.** Louis XIII. of France died; he was succeeded by his son, Louis XIV.—*James, Louis XIV.*, vol. i. p. 27; *White, France*, p. 308.
- 1648.** The Peace of Westphalia closed the Thirty Years' War.—*Gard. Thirty Yrs. War; Rus. Mod. E.*, vol. i. p. 550.
- 1649.** Charles I. was beheaded and the English Commonwealth was founded.—*Hume, Eng.*, vol. v. ch. lix.; *Bright, Eng.*, p. 608; *Green, Eng.*, p. 555; *Rus. Mod. E.*, vol. ii. p. 137.
- 1658.** Oliver Cromwell died and his son Richard became Lord Protector of the Commonwealth.—*Car. Crom.*; *Green, Eng.*, p. 579; *Rus. Mod. E.*, vol. ii. p. 146.
- 1660.** The monarchy was restored in England and Charles II. became king.—*Rus. Mod. E.*, vol. ii. p. 167; *Pict. Eng.*, vol. iii. p. 662; *Guest, Eng.*; *Green, Eng.*
- 1663.** Carolina was settled by the English.—*Loss. U. S.*, p. 97.
- 1664.** New Jersey was settled at Elizabethtown by the English.—*Loss. U. S.*, p. 93.
- 1665.** The Great Plague raged in London.—*Pep. Mem.*, vol. ii. p. 288.
- 1666.** The Great Fire broke out in London.—*Pep. Mem.*, vol. ii. p. 439.
- 1674.** John Milton, England's greatest epic poet, died.—*Mac. Es.*, vol. i. p. 202.
- 1682.** Pennsylvania was settled by the Quakers under William Penn.—*Loss. U. S.*, p. 94; *Bry. U. S.*
- 1683.** John Sobieski, King of Poland, compelled the Turks to raise the siege of Vienna.—*Creas. Ot. T.*, p. 292.
- 1685.** Charles II. of England died; he was succeeded by his brother, James II.—*Bright, Eng.*, p. 722; *Green, Eng.*, p. 642.
- 1685.** The Edict of Nantes was revoked by Louis XIV.—*James, Louis XIV.*, vol. ii. p. 293; *White, France*, p. 367.
- 1688.** James II. of England abdicated and William and Mary ascended the throne.—*Mac. Eng.*, vol. ii. ch. x.; *Rus. Mod. E.*, vol. ii. p. 241; *Bright, Eng.*, p. 761.
- 1692.** The Witchcraft delusion raged at Salem.—*Ban. U. S.*, vol. iii. p. 84.

HISTORIC SKETCHES.

1603. Death of Queen Elizabeth. Accession of James I.

QUEEN ELIZABETH ascended the throne of England in 1558 amid the most enthusiastic rejoicings. The fortunes of the country had sunk to a very low ebb through the bloodshed and misgovernment of the previous reign, and all eyes turned to Elizabeth as the one hope of the nation. In the first speech she made to her Parliament she said that "nothing, no worldly thing under the sun, was so dear to her as the love and good will of her subjects." And these she fully gained. Throughout her reign she was the pride and idol of the English nation.

Elizabeth showed the greatest wisdom in the choice of her counsellors. The chief of these statesmen was Cecil, afterwards Lord Burleigh, by whose advice she was guided in the leading transactions of her reign.

One of her first measures was the restoration of Protestantism. This work was not completed until 1562, when the Church of England was established in its present form through the labors of Archbishop Parker.

There were at this time three religious parties, —the Churchmen, members of the Established Church; the Roman Catholics; and the Puritans, so called because they desired a simpler form of worship than that used by either the Churchmen or the Roman Catholics.

A new law called the Act of Conformity, which allowed no places of worship except those of the Established Church, was the cause of the imprisonment of many Catholics and Puritans. Some even were now put to death for disobeying the new laws with regard to religion.

As yet no one could realize that differences of opinion on matters of religion as well as other things are natural and even desirable, and that these different feelings and opinions are only the different ways of arriving at the truth, which is too great and high for any one mortal to grasp altogether.

Elizabeth was the last of her family, and if she left no child the young Queen of Scotland would be heir to the throne. But Mary was a Roman Catholic and Queen of France besides. The Protestants objected to her Catholicism, while all parties disliked the prospect of England's ever becoming a dependency of France. Everybody therefore implored Elizabeth to marry. She had innumerable suitors among the crowned heads and great nobles of Europe, but she never would say "no" and she never would say "yes," and in the end she remained the Virgin Queen with her power undivided.

Under Elizabeth's prudent and peaceful administration the country made wonderful growth in wealth and social energy. The commerce of the nation began to develop with great rapidity. The hope of a northern passage to India led to the discovery of Archangel and opened up trade with Russia. Traffic in gold-dust and ivory was carried on with the nations of Guinea, and the fisheries on the coast of Newfoundland were constantly increasing in importance. Sir Francis Drake won renown by making a voyage around the world. Sir Walter Raleigh established colonies upon the American coast.

During these years of quiet progress and development patriotism became more and more a passion in the hearts of men, and whatever might be their religious differences, all took

the political ground of liberty against tyranny,—of England against foreign invasion. We now come to the greatest event of Elizabeth's reign,—the defeat of the Spanish Armada. There had long been rivalry between Philip II. of Spain and Elizabeth. Philip had never quite forgiven Elizabeth's rejection of his offer of marriage, and she had aroused his wrath by the assistance (little as it was) which she had given the Netherlands in their war for independence. The death of Mary Stuart (1587), who had bequeathed her claim to the English crown to Philip, gave him an opportunity to carry out his favorite plan of invading and conquering England. When the English learned that the King of Spain was coming to drive away their queen and make himself king, their hearts all rose—Catholic and Protestant—as the heart of one man. They remembered only that they were Englishmen, and they flew to arms in defence of their country. A fleet of eighty ships—many of them merely yachts—was hurriedly gathered, but at best it was very insignificant compared with the one that was coming. Philip's Armada contained one hundred and eighty vessels, large and strong. They were provided with two thousand five hundred cannon, and were commanded by the best naval officers of Spain. But down under the decks of these noble ships were more than two thousand miserable slaves, chained to the oars and working under the whip of a cruel master. Could an expedition succeed with such a canker hid in its heart? Small as were the English ships they were in perfect trim, and they carried on board the boldest and most brilliant sailors that ever sailed the seas,—Frobisher, Hawkins, and the famous Sir Francis Drake, whose name was a terror to the Spanish. At last the Invincible Armada appeared. As it sailed proudly up the English Channel, the little English fleet, which had been lying in wait at Plymouth, dropped in the rear and began a harassing and tormenting fire upon the enemy.

The Spanish admiral, Medina, tried hard to close upon the English and crush them, but the English ships moved so lightly and were so cleverly handled that the Spaniards could never catch them, while the Spanish shot flew wildly up in the air or down into the sea, doing no harm. At length the Spaniards reached Calais. At midnight Lord Howard, the English admiral, lighted eight fire-ships and sent them down with the tide upon the enemy. The great Spanish galleons cut their cables and drifted in panic out to sea. At dawn the English followed and poured their shot like rain upon the crowded ships. The Spanish began to grow disheartened. They had lost six of their great ships and four thousand men during the week of fighting. A council of war was held, and they resolved to retreat. But they could not go back, for the dreadful little English fleet was behind them. The only course open was to go around the north of Scotland and west of Ireland and so back to Spain. But a mightier foe than the English overtook them. When they reached the Orkneys, the storms of those northern latitudes broke upon them in great fury and the coast was strewn with the wrecks of the ships and the bodies of the drowned. Fifty wretched shattered ships laden with sick and dying men found their way back to Spain. And this was all that was left of the Invincible Armada.

The defeat of the Armada was the highest point of Elizabeth's glory. Her later years were sad and lonely. Her great counsellors, Burleigh and Walsingham, and Leicester, the only man whom perhaps she really loved, were all gone. The favorite of her old age was the young Earl of Essex. He was high-spirited, gallant, and accomplished, but Elizabeth's partiality placed him in positions far above his abilities, and eventually did him more harm than good. In 1599 he was sent as lord-lieutenant to Ireland, where a rebellion had broken out and where a wise ruler was needed. Essex,

who was neither wise nor firm, made an inglorious and useless peace—contrary to orders—and then returned to England. Then he entered into a plot to deprive the queen of her advisers, so that, as he said, she might govern of her own free will. His mad scheme failed, and he was tried and beheaded.* Elizabeth was never happy afterwards, and she gradually sunk into a state of melancholy. For days and nights she lay upon cushions on the floor, refusing to take food or medicine, and at last, sinking into a deep sleep, she passed quietly away, in the seventieth year of her age and the forty-fifth of her reign (1603).

No sovereign of England was ever so popular as Elizabeth. She was commanding in appearance, frank and hearty in her address, well educated, and always fond of gayety and splendor. But she had a great many faults. She was vain, fickle, self-willed, arbitrary, and in matters of diplomacy one of the greatest liars of the day. "A falsehood was to her simply an intellectual means of meeting a difficulty." She had a passionate temper, and would frequently interrupt her councils of state to swear at her ministers. But she loved England and always sought its peace, glory, and happiness. She found it plunged in the lowest depths of degradation,—she left it mistress of the seas and ranking with the proudest nations in the world.

Elizabeth's reign is one of the most glorious in English literature. Spenser, Bacon, Shakespeare, Sidney, and a host of brilliant writers flourished during this period.

* There is a story that Elizabeth had once given Essex a ring, telling him if he was ever in danger to send the jewel back to her and it would save him. When he was condemned to death Essex sent the ring, but by mistake it fell into the hands of his enemies, who of course prevented it from reaching the queen. Two years after the execution of Essex the Countess of Nottingham, who was dying, confessed to Elizabeth that the ring had been intrusted to her, and that her husband had influenced her not to deliver it to the queen. Elizabeth shook the dying woman and said, "God may forgive you, but I never will."

Elizabeth was succeeded by James VI. of Scotland, the son of Mary, Queen of Scots, and the nearest heir to the throne. England and Scotland were thus united under one monarchy.

1607. Settlement of Virginia.

During the reign of Queen Elizabeth various unsuccessful attempts were made by the English to plant colonies in the New World. They claimed all the country stretching from Halifax to Cape Fear River. This immense territory was divided into North and South Virginia, and in 1606 was granted by James I. to two companies, known as the Plymouth Company and the London Company. The northern portion was granted to the Plymouth Company, who endeavored to plant a colony in the same year at the mouth of the Kennebec River, but the severity of the following winter discouraged the settlers and drove them back to England.

The London Company met with more success. In December, 1606, they sent over a band of more than a hundred persons to establish a colony on Roanoke, where in former years Sir Walter Raleigh had made an unsuccessful attempt to found a colony. But a storm carried the vessels beyond Roanoke into Chesapeake Bay. Coming at length to the mouth of a beautiful river, which they named after King James, the settlers sailed about fifty miles upstream, and there on a peninsula formed by the York and James Rivers laid the foundations of Jamestown (May, 1607), the oldest English settlement in America.

Unfortunately, the majority of the new-comers were "poor gentlemen," who were not only unaccustomed to labor but who also looked upon work as a degradation. Such men were ill fitted to become pioneers in a new country. Their idle and vicious habits brought great suffering upon themselves and reduced the colony to the verge of ruin. The management

of affairs fell in a short time into the hands of Captain John Smith, the most famous of these Virginia colonists. Smith was brave, energetic, and full of resources, and through his exertions alone the colony was kept alive for two years. He compelled the settlers to labor, made voyages of discovery, exploring the Chesapeake Bay and the chief rivers of the neighboring country, cultivated the acquaintance of the Indians and procured provisions from them, many times outwitting them but retaining their friendship.

In 1609 the London Company appointed Lord Delaware governor of the colony, and the following year a new band of emigrants with stores of provisions came over from England. They came not a moment too soon. A few months previous Smith had gone to England, and after his departure the colonists gave themselves again to idleness and vice. Many of them starved to death, and the few who were left were on the point of abandoning the settlement when Delaware's fleet arrived. Under Delaware's administration affairs became more prosperous, but the permanency of the colony was established by the wise and vigorous policy of his successor, Sir Thomas Dale.

1609. The Discovery of the Hudson River.

Henry Hudson, an English navigator of distinction, was employed by the Dutch East India Company in 1609 to search for a northeast passage to India. On behalf of a company of London merchants Hudson had previously made two voyages to the Arctic regions for the same purpose, but both times his progress had been stopped by ice, and his employers then gave up the enterprise.

The Dutch were more hopeful, and in April, 1609, Hudson sailed in a small ship called the "Half Moon" for Nova Zembla. But on round-

ing the coast of Norway he found the sea blocked with ice as before. His men, suffering from the intense cold, became discontented and insubordinate, and Hudson, deeming further attempts in this direction useless, turned his ship and made for the coast of America. The crew insisted on going southward, and the "Half Moon" followed the coast as far south as Chesapeake Bay, but for some cause they made no attempt at exploring this bay. Turning again to the northward, the "Half Moon" reached Sandy Hook on the 3d of August, and floating past the cape anchored at nightfall just within the bay. They spent a week in the lower bay exploring the shore and trading with the Indians, who were disposed to be friendly, and then the little vessel sailed up through the Narrows and into the noble river which now bears the name of its discoverer. The Dutch were filled with delight and wonder at sight of the fertile plains, the beautiful forests, and the solemn mountains as they slowly passed up-stream. They had never seen the like before. The vessel reached the limit of her voyage at the place where Albany now stands. Hudson sent out boats to sound the stream above, and he was satisfied, when they returned with the report that the water grew narrower and shallower, that he had discovered, not the passage to India, but a large river flowing from the north. He then turned southward, and influenced by his turbulent crew set sail for England, which they reached in safety in November.

The English government, jealous of the advantage which the Dutch had gained by reason of Hudson's discovery, arbitrarily forbade him to leave his country. The following year Hudson again entered the service of the London merchants and sailed on his last and fatal voyage to the northwest. In Hudson's Bay his brutal crew abandoned him among the ice-fields, and he was never heard of afterwards.

1610. Death of Henry IV. of France. Accession of Louis XIII.

Henry IV., the first of the Bourbon line of kings, succeeded to the French throne in 1589. His claim was disputed by several princes of the blood, and for nine years he had to struggle for the possession of his kingdom. The Duke of Mayenne, head of the Catholic League, took the field against the king with an army composed partly of Spanish and Swiss mercenaries. Two battles were fought, one at Arques (1589), the other at Ivry (1590), in both of which the king's troops won the victory. Henry then invested Paris, which was in the hands of the League. But the advance of a Spanish force from the Netherlands commanded by the Duke of Parma forced him to abandon the siege.

At the commencement of his reign many of the Catholics had consented to recognize Henry as their lawful sovereign if he would abjure the Protestant faith and become a Catholic. He had asked time to deliberate upon this important question. The Duke of Sully, his great prime minister, although himself a Calvinist, advised the king to accept the Catholic religion, and Henry, seeing no other way of delivering his country from the dreadful civil war, accepted the dogmas of the Church of Rome and signed a profession of faith in 1593. The gates of Paris were thrown open and the king was admitted with enthusiasm. In justification of his act Henry is reported to have said, "Paris is worth a mass." It is quite probable that he had no strong religious convictions either way, and that he acted merely upon the ground of expediency. From a political stand-point his step was successful. City after city laid its keys at his feet, and before the close of the year a great part of France had declared for the king and was at peace.

The next five years were spent in reducing the remainder of France to submission and in war with the Spanish king, Philip II., who would not

recognize Henry as king of France. The war closed in 1598 favorably for the French. The same year Henry issued his famous Edict of Nantes. He now devoted his time to repairing the damages occasioned by thirty years of war and to the development of the resources of his kingdom. The prime minister, Sully, reorganized the finances, reduced the expenses of the government, and by his thrifty management gave to France prosperity and security. The king encouraged manufactures and every department of industry, and spent large sums of money upon public improvements, declaring that it was his aim to make France happy and prosperous. Towards the close of his reign a dispute arose between the Emperor of Germany and several of the Protestant princes. Henry IV. declared in favor of the princes, and was on the point of going to war on their behalf when he was assassinated by a fanatical Jesuit (1610).

Henry IV. was a brave soldier and the best of the Bourbon kings, but his private life was sullied by the grossest immoralities. He was succeeded by his son, Louis XIII., a boy of nine years.

1614. Settlement of New York.

Henry Hudson's explorations in the New World under the auspices of the Dutch East India Company gave the Dutch a claim to the newly-discovered region, and in 1614 they built a fort on Manhattan Island for the purpose of trading with the Indians. Their claim included the territory between the Delaware and the Connecticut Rivers, and they gave it the name of New Netherlands.

It was not until 1623 that the colonization of New Netherlands began. In that year two settlements were made,—one on Manhattan Island, called New Amsterdam, the other at Fort Orange, where Albany now stands. The colony began its political career when Peter Minuits,

the first governor, arrived at New Amsterdam in 1626. Minuits on his arrival purchased of the Indians for about twenty-four dollars the whole of Manhattan Island. He gained the good will and confidence of the Indians and opened a friendly correspondence with the Plymouth settlers. Van Twiller, his successor, possessed no special administrative qualities, yet circumstances favored the advancement of the colony. The third governor, William Kieft, was a bold, unscrupulous man, and his administration was stormy and unfortunate. He involved the colony in strife with the Swedes on the Delaware and with the English on the Connecticut. He also brought on a disastrous war with the Indians through his cruelty towards them. Kieft's conduct became so offensive to the colonists that he was finally recalled, and in 1647 Peter Stuyvesant became governor. Under Stuyvesant times grew better. The Indians were conciliated and the boundary disputes with the English were peaceably ended. The Swedes on Delaware Bay were conquered and their territory was annexed to New Netherlands. The industry and thrift of the Dutch made the colony very prosperous.

Without regard to the claims of the Dutch, Charles II. of England granted to his brother, the Duke of York, all the territory reaching from the Connecticut River to Delaware Bay, and in 1664 an English fleet appeared in the harbor of New Amsterdam and demanded the surrender of the town. The Dutch council agreed to terms of capitulation, but Stuyvesant, who was obstinate as well as honest, stumped around on his wooden leg, angrily tore up the letter his council had written to the English, and swore that he would hold the place at every cost. But the colonists were not fond of the military discipline to which they had been subjected by Stuyvesant, and hoping to enjoy more freedom under English rule, they threw open the town. The brave old governor was thus forced to surrender. The English

flag soon floated over the town and island, and the name of the settlement was changed to New York in honor of the new proprietor. In 1673 the Dutch regained possession of the colony, war being in progress between England and Holland, but two years later New York was given back to the English, in whose possession it remained.

1618. Sir Walter Raleigh.

Sir Walter Raleigh, one of the most illustrious Englishmen who flourished during the reign of Elizabeth, was born in 1552. He was educated at Oxford, and after graduating he entered the army. He served in two campaigns on the Continent,—first in behalf of the persecuted Huguenots and then of the Netherlanders. He also distinguished himself in an Irish campaign. Finally he made his appearance at the English court with a commission in the Queen's Guards. A man of his great abilities could not fail to gain the favor of the queen, but Raleigh recommended himself particularly by a little act of gallantry. One morning as Elizabeth walked out with her courtiers she chanced to arrive at a muddy place, which she could not cross without wetting her feet. Raleigh without hesitation took from his shoulders a new yellow cloak and covered the pool, whereupon the queen trod upon it and passed over clean and dry. This attention fixed Raleigh in her good graces, and, as a wag remarked, the sacrifice of a *cloak* obtained for him many a *good suit*.

But the busy spirit of Raleigh soon wearied of the inactive life of a courtier, and we find him in 1584 sending out an expedition to explore the American coast. The country which the explorers discovered was named Virginia, in honor of the queen. Raleigh made two efforts to colonize Virginia, but both were unsuccessful.

About this time he was knighted by Elizabeth and was admitted to Parliament. Towards the

close of Elizabeth's reign Raleigh fell into disfavor with the queen, and for a short time he was imprisoned. After his release he made a voyage to Guiana, South America, for the purpose of ultimately colonizing the country; but although he brought home specimens of gold ore which he had dug from the rocks with his dagger, the queen would not allow him to prosecute his discoveries further.

When James I. came to the throne Raleigh was accused of being implicated in the plot to make Arabella Stuart queen. He was tried and, although no evidence of treason could be adduced, was condemned to death. His sentence was finally changed to imprisonment, and for thirteen years he remained in the Tower. During this dreary captivity he began to write his "History of the World." In 1615 he was permitted to leave his prison to undertake another expedition to Guiana. Two years later he sailed with the king's commission upon this last and ill-fated voyage. The Spanish had already settled in Guiana, and they complained that Raleigh's expedition was an infringement of the terms of peace between the two nations. James determined to sacrifice Raleigh to appease their resentment.

When Sir Walter returned he was arrested and tried, and when the council decided that he had done nothing worthy of punishment, the base king consented to put him to death under his former sentence. When brought to the block Raleigh's demeanor was calm, manly, and even cheerful. He examined the edge of the axe, remarking, "This is a sharp medicine, but a sure remedy for all evils." Upon a blank leaf of his Bible it is said that he wrote the following lines the night before his execution:

"Even such is Time, that takes on trust
Our youth, our joys, our all we have,
And pays us but with age and dust:
Who in the dark and silent grave,
When we have wandered all our ways,
Shuts up the story of our days,"

1620. Settlement of Massachusetts.

The persecution to which the Puritans were subjected in England during the reign of James I. caused many of them to seek refuge in Holland. There they took the name of Pilgrims. After a residence of ten years at Leyden, they determined to remove to the New World. After many delays and disappointments a band of the Pilgrims sailed to Southampton, England, where they were joined by friends from London. The entire party, numbering one hundred and sixty, left Northampton in two ships, the "Speedwell" and the "Mayflower." Twice they returned to port—first to Dartmouth, then to Plymouth—to make repairs, and then, the "Speedwell" having been pronounced unseaworthy, the "Mayflower" sailed alone with one hundred and one passengers. After a very stormy voyage of sixty-five days they reached Cape Cod Bay. Nearly a month was consumed in seeking a place to land. At length on the 21st of December they disembarked upon the coast of Massachusetts Bay where Plymouth now stands. Before landing they agreed upon a form of government, and selected John Carver as governor and Miles Standish as military commander.

The colonists were unaccustomed to so rigorous a climate; provisions were scanty and poor, diseases engendered by want and exposure broke out, and in less than five months about one-half the company were dead, Governor Carver among the number. Fortunately, the Indians did not molest them, and an early spring brought health and hope to the survivors. Bradford was appointed governor in Carver's place. He was a wise and prudent man, and for thirty years he managed the affairs of the colony with great sagacity. Friendly relations were established with most of the neighboring tribes of Indians, the treaty with Massassoit, chief of the Womponoags, remaining inviolate for fifty years.

Other settlements were made a few years later at Salem and Boston by Puritans from

England. These, with the Plymouth colony, laid the foundation of the State of Massachusetts.

1623. Settlement of New Hampshire.

In 1622 the Plymouth Company ceded to Sir Ferdinand Gorges and John Mason the territory between the Kennebec and Merrimac Rivers. To this section the new proprietors gave the name of Laconia, and in 1623 they sent thither emigrants, who established fishing colonies at Portsmouth and Dover. These colonists were for the most part mere adventurers filled with the notion that they would discover gold. They struggled on for years, hunting, fishing, and trading with the Indians, but made very little progress. It is related of the people of Portsmouth that on one occasion when an itinerant preacher reminded them that they ought to be very religious since they had come to the New World for the purpose of free worship, they replied, "Sir, you are quite mistaken. You think you are speaking to the Massachusetts Bay people. *Our* main end is to catch fish."

In 1629 Gorges and Mason divided their property, Gorges taking the eastern part, afterwards the State of Maine, and Mason the western portion, including the two settlements. In the same year the name of the colonies was changed to New Hampshire.

After the death of Mason a great deal of trouble arose on account of the claims of his heirs. The New Hampshire colonies were several times joined to the Massachusetts Bay colony, but a final separation took place in 1741. New Hampshire was thenceforth a royal province until the Revolution.

1625. Death of James I. Accession of Charles I.

James I. ascended the throne of England impressed with a belief in the absolute power

of kings. It was his maxim that he was appointed by God king of the land, and that no one might oppose or depose him; that he was master of the people, and responsible to no one but God for his actions. This doctrine of the "divine right of kings" was contrary to the whole history of England, and, although James's arbitrary actions were borne with, his successor by following in his footsteps lost his life.

James I. had been brought up in the Reformed faith by the Scotch, and when he came to England he attached himself to the Established or Episcopal Church. He dealt with both Puritans and Catholics in a very high-handed manner. Many of the Puritans left the country and sought an asylum in the New World. The discontent of the Catholics found vent in the famous or infamous Gunpowder Plot. The design of this plot was to blow up king and Parliament with gunpowder at the opening of the session. For this purpose the conspirators hired a cellar under the House of Parliament under pretence of storing fuel. Thirty-six barrels of gunpowder were secretly carried in and covered over with fagots of wood. Guy Fawkes was appointed to fire the train. But the evening before the day on which Parliament was to assemble, one of the members, Lord Monteagle, received an anonymous letter warning him not to attend the opening of the session. It was afterwards learned that this letter was written by one of the conspirators, Monteagle's brother-in-law, in the hope of saving the life of his relative. Lord Monteagle carried the letter immediately to the king and his council, who, suspecting from the language of the missive that gunpowder was referred to, caused the cellar of the House of Parliament to be examined. There they found Guy Fawkes with his slow matches and dark lantern, and under the fagots the thirty-six barrels of gunpowder. Guy Fawkes and several of his accomplices were executed. The others were slain in endeavoring to resist their arrest. This hateful con-

spiracy, although brooding for many months, was known to not more than eighty persons, and it would be very unjust to lay it to the charge of the Catholics in general.

James I. surrounded himself by very unworthy favorites. The chief of these was George Villiers, afterwards Duke of Buckingham. Villiers was a dissolute and unprincipled man. He treated the king with the most insolent familiarity, but James never got offended. The saddest occurrence of this reign was the disgrace of the most eminent man in the kingdom, Lord Bacon, who has been styled "the greatest, wisest, meanest of mankind." He became lord chancellor in 1616, and held this office until 1621, when it was discovered that he, the highest judge in the land, had been in the habit of taking bribes. He was impeached by Parliament and degraded from his high position. Thus fell one of the greatest philosophers England ever produced.

The king's intolerant notions and his illegal measures for raising money were continually opposed by Parliament. But what displeased his people worse than all else was his desire to make friends with Spain and marry his son Charles to the Infanta. The English people writhed under the idea of this marriage with a Spaniard and a Catholic, but James did not care for their objections. Charles and Buckingham made a journey in disguise to Spain to see the bride-elect. But a quarrel with the Spanish minister broke off the match, and Charles was soon after engaged to Henrietta Maria of France. These changes led to war with Spain. While the war was in progress James died (1625). His eldest son had died some years before, and he was succeeded by his second son, Charles I.

James I. had considerable learning, but his fondness for displaying it gained him very general ridicule. He was awkward and slovenly, and his want of personal courage was notorious. In fact, he did not possess one kingly attribute. One of the wits of the period wrote, contrasting him with Queen Elizabeth,—

"When Elizabeth was England's king
That dreadful name through Spain did ring;
How altered is the case ad sa' me,
These juggling days of good Queen Jamie."

1633. Settlement of Connecticut.

The rich valley of the Connecticut River early attracted the attention of the pioneers struggling for existence upon the barren shores of Massachusetts Bay. In 1630 a grant of this inviting region was given by the Plymouth Company to the Earl of Warwick, who transferred his claim the following year to Lord Say-and-Seal and Lord Brooke. The Dutch had discovered the Connecticut River in 1614 and had built a fort near the present site of Hartford. In 1633 a company of traders under Captain Holmes from Plymouth arrived at the mouth of the river. The Dutch endeavored to prevent them from sailing up the stream, but the English passed the fort unhurt, and began the settlement of Connecticut by building a fort at Windsor. In 1635 a colony was established at the mouth of the river and named Say-brooke, in honor of the proprietors. Wethersfield and Hartford were settled by emigrants from Massachusetts about the same time.

The settlers soon became involved in difficulties with the Indians, and a terrible war with the Pequods broke out. The colonists received assistance from friendly Indians, and the Pequods were completely exterminated. This fearful blow gave New England peace for forty years. The various Connecticut colonies were all united in 1665 under a charter granted them by Charles II.

1634. Settlement of Maryland.

The persecution of Roman Catholics in England during the reign of James I. induced Sir George Calvert (Lord Baltimore) to apply to the king for a charter to establish a colony in

the New World. Before the grant was made Calvert died, and the new king, Charles I., issued the patent to Calvert's son, Cecil. This charter was exceedingly liberal, granting religious and civil equality to all who might become members of the colony. The province, which was located north of the Potomac River, was called Maryland, in honor of the queen, Henrietta Maria. In 1634 about two hundred emigrants, mostly Roman Catholics, arrived at the mouth of Chesapeake Bay, and ascending the Potomac River they purchased an Indian village, which they called St. Mary's. Here they commenced their settlement. Leonard Calvert, brother of the proprietor, was made governor.

The new colony flourished under its liberal institutions, and in six months attained greater prosperity than Jamestown in as many years. Maryland was the first colony to establish religious toleration of all denominations by law.

William Clayborne, who had founded two trading-posts on the Chesapeake before the Maryland colonists came, refused to acknowledge the authority of the new colony, and he gave considerable trouble before he was finally dispossessed.

The settlement of Maryland was free from hardship and peril, and her history is uneventful until the Revolution.

1636. Settlement of Rhode Island.

Rhode Island was settled by Roger Williams, a clergyman of Salem, Massachusetts, who was banished from the colony in 1635 on account of his religious opinions and his opposition to the government. Williams spent a dreary winter among the Womponoag Indians, who were as hospitable as their circumstances would permit, and in the spring he purchased from the Narragansett Indians a tract of land at the head of Narragansett Bay. There with five companions

from Boston he commenced a settlement, which he called Providence in remembrance of God's mercy (1636).

Two years later William Coddington, Mrs. Ann Hutchinson, and some other religious fanatics who could not live peaceably in the Massachusetts colony founded settlements upon an island in Narragansett Bay, which they called the Isle of Rhodes.

Unwilling to acknowledge allegiance to either Massachusetts or Plymouth, the Providence and Rhode Island colonies obtained from Parliament an independent charter, by which they were united in 1644.

1638. Settlement of Delaware.

Gustavus Adolphus of Sweden, following the lead of the Dutch, founded a Swedish West India Company for the purpose of establishing colonies in the New World. Before the project could be carried into effect Gustavus died. Several years after his death a charter was granted by the Swedish government to the West India Company, and in 1638 a band of Swedes and Finns came over to the New World and bought a tract of land from the Indians on Delaware Bay. They built a fort near the present site of Wilmington and called it Christina, in honor of their queen. Other Swedish settlements were made in the vicinity. The Dutch, regarding these settlements with jealous eyes, invaded New Sweden in 1655 and compelled the Swedes to submit to their authority.

The Delaware settlements remained under the control of the Dutch until 1664, when they passed with New Netherlands into the hands of the English.

Delaware was included in the grant made to William Penn in 1682, and under the name of the "Territories," or the "three lower counties," it was ruled by the governors of Pennsylvania until the Revolution.

1642. Cardinal Richelieu.

Armand Jean Duplessis, cardinal and Duke of Richelieu, was born in Paris in 1585. When a young man he was trained to his father's profession of arms, but before he had time to see much warfare his elder brother, who was Bishop of Luçon, resigned, and Richelieu, deeming the Church a better field for his ambition than the camp, took holy orders, and was consecrated Bishop of Luçon in his brother's stead when only twenty-one years of age. In 1614 he was elected one of the deputies of the clergy to the States-General. He took this opportunity to ingratiate himself into the favor of the queen-mother, Marie de Médicis, and through her influence he was admitted to the Council in 1616, and received in 1622 the cardinal's red hat. In 1624 he became a member of the king's Council. In a short time Richelieu's superior talents and political wisdom won for him the position of prime minister of France.

Under the protection of the Edict of Nantes the Huguenots had again risen to power and importance, and the spirit of freedom engendered by their religious struggle made them the enemies of despotism. Richelieu, aiming at an absolute government for France, determined to crush their power, and for this purpose laid siege to their great stronghold, the city of La Rochelle. Finding that he could not take it by land so long as the harbor was open, he caused his soldiers to build a mole across the mouth of the harbor, thus completely blockading the town. An English fleet sent to the relief of the Rochellois attempted to blow up the barrier, but in vain, and at last sailed away, leaving the city to its fate. Fourteen months the brave inhabitants held out, but famine finally forced them to surrender (October, 1628). When the victorious army of Richelieu entered the place there were not two hundred men alive who were strong enough to bear arms. Fifteen thousand had died of famine,—the living looked

like ghosts. No severe punishments were visited upon these emaciated beings, but the walls of the city were thrown down and her proud spirit was broken. The fall of Rochelle was followed by the surrender of other Huguenot towns, and the political power of the French Protestants was utterly prostrated.

Richelieu next turned his attention to European politics. The great "Thirty Years' War" was in progress, and with the hope of curbing the power of the house of Austria, the great rival of France, Richelieu threw himself into the struggle. Laying aside his religious scruples, he took the side of the Protestants of Germany against the empire. Although he did not live to see the close of this great war, he saw Austria humbled and the boundaries of France enlarged at the expense of the empire.

At home the cardinal ruled with an iron hand. Neither the lives nor the property of those who offended him were safe. The king and the nobles both feared and hated him. Numerous conspiracies against his life and power were ferreted out by his own crafty vigilance and that of his secret emissaries. Many of the nobles were put to death, others fled from the country, and the haughty cardinal was able to boast of having crushed out the last spark of independence and patrician pride. Marie de Médicis, who had long since become the bitterest of Richelieu's foes, was forced into exile, and she died in penury at Cologne in 1641. The following year the great cardinal died. It is said that the Parisians lit bonfires to express their joy at his death.

Probably no man has ever had so much influence over the destinies of France as Cardinal Richelieu. He aimed to make France the greatest power in Europe and Richelieu the greatest man in France. He accomplished both these aims, and died but little concerned about the means he had employed in attaining them.

Richelieu was a patron of literature and science. He founded the French Academy, the most splendid literary institution in Europe.

1642. Galileo.

Galileo, an illustrious Italian mathematician and natural philosopher, was born at Pisa in 1564. From early childhood he showed a rare aptitude for mechanical invention. His father's means were limited, but amid various discouragements Galileo acquired a fair knowledge of the common branches of learning and the classics, besides music, drawing, and painting. In 1581 his father sent him to the University of Pisa to study medicine, but the impulse of his genius led him to study geometry and physical philosophy in preference, and at the age of twenty-four Galileo became professor of mathematics in the university. A few years later he exchanged this position for a similar one in the University of Padua. While at Padua he invented a thermometer in which both air and water were employed. About this time, after carefully examining the rival systems of astronomy, he adopted the Copernican, which was opposed by the schoolmen and clergy of Italy as being heretical.

Galileo quietly continued his investigations, and, having improved the telescope, which in the hands of his predecessors had been a mere toy, saw by means of this wonderful instrument the mountains and valleys of the moon, discovered the satellites of Jupiter, and assured himself that the "Milky-Way" was composed of myriads of stars. His discoveries were received by the astronomers of the old school with insults and incredulity. Some exclaimed against the impiety of scooping out valleys from the fair face of the moon; some attempted to explain away the satellites of Jupiter as mere appearances caused by reflected light; and one of the professors in the university at Padua argued that as there were only seven metals, and but seven apertures in a man's head, so there could be but seven planets!

Galileo's theories met with so much opposition that he was summoned to Rome in 1616, where

he was induced to promise Pope Paul V. that he would not again teach the doctrine of the motion of the earth around the sun. He then returned to Florence, where he had been living for five years. In 1632 he published his great work, "Dialogues on the Ptolemaic and Copernican Systems." This book occasioned a great outcry at Rome, and Galileo was again summoned before the papal tribunal. Once more he abjured the obnoxious theory of the earth's motion, but it is related that as he rose from his knees he exclaimed, in an undertone, "It does move for all that!" He was allowed to return to his home, but he was kept under surveillance the remainder of his life. Giving his attention from this time less to astronomy and more to natural philosophy, he published in 1638 a book on "Local Motion." Not long afterwards he became blind and deaf, and while preparing for a continuation of his work on Motion he died (1642).

1643. Death of Louis XIII. Accession of Louis XIV.

Louis XIII. was but a child when he succeeded to the throne of France, and the government was administered by the queen-mother, Marie de Médicis, and a council of regency. Two Italian favorites, Concini and his wife, gained complete ascendancy over the regent's mind. The government under their control became very weak and corrupt. The great nobles, enraged at the favor shown to foreigners, rose in insurrection, but they were no less corrupt than the greedy favorites whom they despised, and they were bought off with offices, appointments, and ready money, which Concini lavished upon them from the king's treasury.

In 1617 the young king, tired of Concini's mastery, and influenced by a new favorite, De Luynes, caused Concini and his wife to be put to death, and assumed the government in his own name. De Luynes was liked no better by

the nobles than Concini had been, and in a short time the country was in a state of ferment and insurrection. After several years of confusion and bloodshed, the great Cardinal Richelieu became chief minister and adviser of the king. Richelieu's strong and unyielding government soon reduced the nobles to submission and relieved the country from anarchy. The history of the reign of Louis XIII. from this time onward is the history of the life of the great cardinal. In his hands the feeble king became a mere cipher,—a nonentity.

Louis XIII. died in 1643, five months after the death of his great minister. Louis had no very noticeable faults and very few virtues. He was succeeded by his son, Louis XIV., a boy of five years, the government being intrusted to the queen-mother, Anne of Austria, as regent.

1648. Peace of Westphalia. (Close of the "Thirty Years' War.")

The Protestants of Germany were comparatively free from persecution until the beginning of the seventeenth century, when the great conflict known as the "Thirty Years' War" broke out. The war began in Bohemia shortly after Ferdinand, a Roman Catholic prince, became king. Ferdinand suppressed the Protestant worship in town after town and allowed several Protestant churches to be destroyed. The Bohemian Protestants, seeking in vain for redress, rose in insurrection in 1618, and thus was inaugurated the "Thirty Years' War." The following year the German emperor, Matthias, died, and Ferdinand was elected to the imperial throne. The Bohemians, disgusted with his government in their country, refused to acknowledge him longer as their king, choosing in his stead Frederick, Elector Palatine, and a Protestant. The new emperor sent an army into Bohemia, and Frederick and his adherents were

totally defeated in a battle near Prague. Tilly, the imperial general, completed the conquest of the country, and Frederick, who was a weak and cowardly prince, was deprived of both Bohemia and his hereditary dominions (1622). This closes the *first period* of the war.

Alarmed by the troubles in Bohemia, the Protestant princes of Germany now appealed to the Protestant powers of Europe for aid, and Christian IV. of Denmark responded to their call by invading Germany with a large army. To oppose him the emperor sent Count Wallenstein, a rich Bohemian nobleman, who raised an army at his own expense. Of this mysterious man, Schiller's darling hero, it is said that he seldom spoke a word and that he was never seen to smile. Assisted by the ferocious Tilly, Wallenstein drove Christian IV. out of Germany, out of the peninsula of Denmark, and shut him up in the Danish islands. Wallenstein then laid siege to Stralsund, a Danish fortress on the Baltic, but, not having ships enough to block up the harbor, he was forced to abandon the siege, although he had declared he would have the place "even though it were bound to heaven with chains of adamant." This repulse led the emperor to treat with Christian, and the peace of Lubeck (1629) closed the *second period* of the war.

Cardinal Richelieu of France, the implacable foe of the house of Austria, now began to interest himself in the war. Wallenstein's arrogance and extortion had won the universal hatred of the German princes, and through the influence of Richelieu's emissary the unsmiling general was dismissed from service (1630). Richelieu next induced Gustavus Adolphus of Sweden to appear as the champion of the Protestant cause. Gustavus had already distinguished himself as a military commander, and by many he was looked upon as the greatest soldier of the age. With sixteen thousand finely-disciplined troops Gustavus invaded Germany in 1630, and by a series of rapid move-

ments passed triumphantly through the country and defeated Tilly in a great battle near Leipsic. Quickly making himself master of the whole country from the Elbe to the Rhine, Gustavus crossed the Rhine and pushed southward towards the Lech, a tributary of the Danube. In defending the passage of this stream Tilly was defeated and mortally wounded. The Swedes at once overran Bavaria and entered Munich in triumph. Tilly's death forced the emperor to recall Wallenstein to the command of the army. At the head of sixty thousand troops the imperial general met Gustavus with his little band near Lutzen in 1632, where a great battle was fought. In the midst of the conflict Gustavus was killed, and his troops roused to fury by his death fought with such desperation that Wallenstein's army at last gave way and fled. Soon after the battle of Lutzen Wallenstein was accused of treason, and the emperor fearing to dismiss him the second time caused him to be secretly assassinated (1634). This ended the *third period* of the war.

Through the intrigues of Cardinal Richelieu France now entered the struggle on behalf of the Protestants of Germany. But the war had long since lost its religious significance. Neither the Emperor Ferdinand nor Richelieu lived to see the close of this long and desolating war, which was terminated in 1648 by the peace of Westphalia. By the terms of this treaty the religious independence of the Protestant states was confirmed, the eastern boundaries of France were extended to the Rhine, Sweden received important posts upon the Baltic, Switzerland and Holland became independent states, and the imperial house of Austria lost the preponderance it had enjoyed since the time of Charles V.

Thirty years of war and bloodshed had reduced the population of the German empire to one-third of what it was before the war, had paralyzed her industry and commerce and transferred her wealth to other lands. Many years

elapsed before Germany recovered from the effects of this disastrous conflict.

1649. Death of Charles I.

Charles I. inherited his father's despotic theories of government. In all other respects he was very unlike James I. He was dignified and handsome, pure in his private life, and every inch a gentleman. But he had one great defect of character, he never would keep his promises, and in his dealings with his subjects he showed no feeling of truth or honor. In his thirst for absolute power he was encouraged by his wife Henrietta Maria, whom he married soon after he came to the throne, and by the Duke of Buckingham, who was as much a favorite with Charles as he had been with James.

James had left the treasury empty, and Charles was soon obliged to summon Parliament to ask for money to carry on the Spanish war. The House of Commons granted a smaller sum than the king desired, and further offended him by giving him for a single year certain taxes that had been commonly granted to the new sovereign for life. Taking this restriction as an insult, Charles closed the session and exacted money on his own authority. The second Parliament meeting in 1626 refused to grant any supplies unless the king would dismiss the Duke of Buckingham; and they were preparing to impeach the corrupt favorite, when Charles angrily dissolved Parliament and tried again to raise money without their consent. His course awakened a spirit of opposition among the people, and in the midst of growing dissatisfaction Buckingham involved the country in war with France. This war terminated ingloriously for the English, but they had some cause for rejoicing nevertheless. On his return to England the odious Duke of Buckingham had been assassinated by a discharged army officer.

In the same year (1628) Parliament was again

called. Before granting any money they drew up the famous *Petition of Right*, which required that the king should raise no taxes without the consent of Parliament, and that no man should be imprisoned without a trial. This was presented to the king for his signature. Charles held back as long as he could, and at last signed it very unwillingly. But he soon forgot his promises, and in defiance of the Petition he went on raising money by levying taxes called tonnage and poundage (duties upon every tun of wine and every pound of merchandise brought into the country); and he tried to force rich men to lend him money, imprisoning them if they refused. When Parliament met again (1629) they remonstrated against these arbitrary acts. The king said that they should not discuss the matter, and when the bolder members refused to obey his order, Charles sent them to prison and prorogued the Parliament.

He then determined to govern alone. For eleven years no Parliament was called (1629-1640). During those years of despotism the chief advisers of the king were Sir Thomas Wentworth, afterwards Earl of Strafford, and Archbishop Laud. Strafford had formerly been on the side of the people, and had been a leading member of the House of Commons when the Petition of Right was drawn up, but he afterwards deserted the popular cause and became more arbitrary and despotic than Charles himself. Archbishop Laud considered himself a strict Protestant, but he was very fond of the forms and ceremonies of the High Church, and he hated the simple religious services of the Puritans. Three lawless tribunals were now established, under the direction of these two men, for the suppression of liberty. In these courts—the Star Chamber, High Commission Court, and Council of York—men were condemned to fine, imprisonment, mutilation, for resisting the king's policy or differing from the archbishop in religious matters. The Puritans especially were treated with pitiless cruelty.

One poor man named Prynne had his ears cut off, his nose slit open, and his forehead branded because he wrote a pamphlet against dancing and theatres, amusements of which the queen was very fond.

Strafford was bent upon establishing an absolute government, but this could not be maintained without an army, and the king had no money to support one. They dared not levy any new taxes, so they resorted to an old one long out of use called ship-money. In times when there was danger of invasion the large towns on the coast gave the king money to fit out ships to defend the country. Strafford proposed to levy this tax now, although there was no prospect of an invasion, and use the money, not to build ships, but to raise an army. He demanded the tax not only from the coast cities but from inland places. The people were justly alarmed and indignant, and some brave men, John Hampden among the number, refused to pay the tax demanded.

The king and Laud next exasperated the Scotch people by forcing them to use the liturgy of the Church of England, which they disliked almost as much as the service of the Catholic Church. The first Sunday the service was read at Edinburgh a great riot broke out. All over Scotland the people rose in resistance, and they made a covenant to withstand to the death encroachments on their religious freedom.

Charles had neither money nor men to put down the Scotch rebellion, and he could see no alternative but to call Parliament together. But when Parliament began to talk about grievances the headstrong king, who wanted money and not complaints, sent them about their business, and tried once more to rule alone. More ship-money was levied, soldiers were enlisted by force, but they did not want to fight against the Scotch, and the king was compelled to summon another Parliament,—the famous Long Parliament (1641). It was his last. All the members seemed now to be of one mind, and immediately

they went to work to restore freedom. The three odious courts were abolished and ship-money was declared illegal. The king was helpless in the hands of these determined men. The two tyrants, Laud and Strafford, were imprisoned and tried for treason. Strafford was beheaded immediately and Laud four years later. They both died bravely, declaring their loyalty to the king and their love for the kingdom. Matters were brought to a crisis early in 1642, when the king attempted to arrest his most daring opponents in the House of Commons,—Pym, Hampden, Haselrig, Hollis, and Strode. The House refused to give them up. Charles went with soldiers to seize them, but they received timely warning of his approach and took refuge among the citizens of London. In a few days they came back to their places in triumph. There was great excitement in London against the king, and feeling himself no longer safe in the metropolis he went to Hampton Court. The queen fled to Holland. Several months passed. Parliament maintained its determined attitude, the king would make no concessions, and both parties began to prepare for war. The king set up his standard at Nottingham in August (1642). His soldiers were called Cavaliers, and they included the greater part of the nobility and gentry, while the Parliamentary ranks were filled with tradesmen and the lower orders of the people, Roundheads, as they were called, because they wore their hair cropped short in Puritan fashion.

The first battle of the civil war was fought at Edgehill. The conflict was indecisive, but for some time afterwards the cause of the king seemed to prosper. At last Parliament secured a great general to lead their army,—Oliver Cromwell, the most famous man in all the period. Oliver had been a member of Parliament. When he first went into the army as a cavalry captain he saw that the clownish soldiers of Parliament were no match for the king's Cavaliers, and on being promoted to the rank of colonel he immediately

set to work to remodel his regiment. He filled the ranks with better men and subjected them to the strictest military drill and discipline. This regiment soon became famous as "Cromwell's Ironsides." It was not long before Cromwell had control of the entire army. This was thoroughly reorganized and placed under the same system of drill and discipline. The soldiers had good pay and were men of good character and decent station. There was no swearing, no gambling, no drinking, in their camp. Both officers and men frequently gathered in the barracks to pray, and they often sang hymns as they were going to battle. The king's Cavaliers could not withstand such an army as this, and after a series of defeats the Royalists were utterly routed at Naseby (1645).

The unfortunate king fled and threw himself upon the protection of the Scots, who had invaded England on behalf of Parliament. The Scots offered to support him if he would sign their Covenant, but this he refused to do, and after some negotiations the Scots gave him up to Parliament (1647).

Cromwell, finding that some of the members wanted to make terms with Charles, caused the House of Parliament to be surrounded by two regiments under Colonel Pride and all but his own followers to be excluded. This was called "Pride's Purge." Oliver was becoming more tyrannical than the king.

What was left of Parliament now determined to try Charles for being a tyrant and for waging war against his people. Such a thing had never been done before, and it seemed like sacrilege in the eyes of the masses to bring a consecrated and anointed king to trial. But the Puritan leaders were not to be turned from their purpose. The trial lasted seven days, and then Charles was condemned to death. The Netherlands interceded in his behalf, the Scots protested against the whole proceedings, and the Prince of Wales offered the judges any conditions as the price of his father's release. But in

vain, and on the 30th of January, 1649, Charles Stuart was beheaded. From the moment his head fell the people forgot their wrongs and looked upon him as a saint and a martyr.

There is no question that Charles I. was a good man in many respects, certainly in his private life, but he seemed to have an extra conscience to control him in his public acts, and deemed it no sin to deceive his people. This double-dealing proved to be his ruin.

1658. The Commonwealth and Oliver Cromwell.

After the death of Charles I. the monarchy was abolished, and the English Commonwealth was established, the executive power being placed in the hands of a council of forty-one members. But the nation was in reality under the control of Cromwell and his army.

A great rebellion in Ireland speedily claimed Oliver's attention. With his iron soldiers he reduced the country to submission in nine months. But he was guilty of great cruelties in this campaign. He slaughtered great numbers of innocent people and drove thousands from their homes, which were then given to English Protestants. "The curse of Cromwell on you" is to this day an imprecation of deadliest hatred from the lips of the Irish. When Oliver returned to England great honors were showered upon him, and he went to live in the king's palace at Whitehall.

The next trouble occurred in Scotland. On the death of the king the Scots had proclaimed his son Charles their king. Charles came over from the Continent, and was received joyously at Edinburgh (1650) after agreeing to sign the Covenant and turn Presbyterian. Cromwell marched promptly into Scotland, and defeated the Royalist army at Dunbar. Charles escaped, however, and afterwards invaded England, but his army was routed at Worcester, and the prince was obliged

to flee in disguise for his life. Oliver's soldiers searched diligently for him. Once while he was hiding in a leafy oak-tree his pursuers came below, and he heard them say what they would do with him if they could only catch him. He had many wonderful adventures and hair-breadth escapes before he got safely over to France.

Placing General Monk in Scotland to complete its subjugation, Cromwell returned and busied himself with affairs in England. A war with Holland broke out, and the English under Admiral Blake won some splendid victories over the Dutch Admirals Van Tromp and De Ruyter. Parliament grew very jealous of Cromwell's growing power, and Cromwell determined to get rid of it. Marching one day to the House with a body of soldiers, he bade the members begone and drove the Speaker from his chair. In a few minutes the soldiers cleared the hall, and Oliver went away with the keys in his pocket,—Dictator of England (1653). The country now lay at his feet. Resolving to govern in the old way with a House of Lords and a House of Commons, he summoned a new Parliament. This was composed chiefly of illiterate fanatics, and was called in derision "Barebone's Parliament" because a leather-seller named Barebone took a very active part in its proceedings. This ridiculous assembly was soon dissolved. Cromwell now caused himself to be declared Lord Protector of the Commonwealth, but he was required to summon a Parliament every three years. Cromwell administered the government with great vigor and ability and he raised England again to a rank among the mightiest nations of Europe. Admiral Blake won a series of brilliant victories upon the seas. He humbled the power of Spain and rooted out and destroyed the Barbary pirates, who had long infested the Mediterranean. Wherever the fleet of the Commonwealth approached, the proud armaments of other nations lowered their flags or slunk away under the guns of their own fortresses.

In 1657 Cromwell's Parliament offered him the crown, but the army hated the title of king, and although Oliver coveted the proffered honor he dared not accept it. The people did not love his arbitrary measures and his military government, and at length plots and insurrections were formed against him. A tract entitled "Killing no Murder" filled him with ceaseless fears. He wore armor under his clothes, never went out without an escort, and seldom came home by the same road on which he started. At last the cares of government, the apprehension of personal violence, and the death of a favorite daughter so preyed upon his mind as to bring on a fever, of which he died (1658). He was buried in Westminster Abbey with great pomp and magnificence. His son, Richard Cromwell, succeeded him as Lord Protector, but he had no capacity for holding so difficult a position and he soon resigned, leaving the country under the control of the army.

It was a long time before anything like justice was done to the character of Oliver Cromwell by his countrymen. It is generally conceded now that as general, statesman, and sovereign he was one of the greatest men that England ever produced.

1660. The Restoration.

After the resignation of Richard Cromwell the army made a sort of government of their own, but they soon fell to quarrelling among themselves, now that Oliver's firm hand was gone, and England was threatened with anarchy and civil war. At this critical moment General Monk marched his troops from Scotland to London, and declared that the people should have a free Parliament. The members of the "Long Parliament" resumed their seats, issued writs for a new election, and then that famous body dissolved itself forever. When the new Parliament met they voted that the government ought to be by King, Lords, and Commons.

Everybody was rejoiced at the prospect of having a king again. A fine fleet was despatched to Holland, where Charles was, and the exile returned in triumph to his native land. On the 8th of May, 1660, he was proclaimed King Charles II., and three weeks later he entered the city of London. His progress was a continual ovation. As he himself wittily expressed it, "The fault must surely have rested with himself that he had been so long absent, for every one seemed glad of his return."

This event is known in history as the "Restoration."

1663. Settlement of North and South Carolina.

Carolina was named in honor of Charles IX. of France by French explorers, but it was first colonized by the English.

In 1663, Charles II. of England, ignoring the claims of France and Spain to this section of the New World, granted to Lord Clarendon, Lord Shaftesbury, and others the vast territory south of Virginia. A company of religious refugees from Virginia had made a settlement in this region, upon the Chowan River, about 1650. The new proprietors established government over this colony and changed its name to the Albemarle County Colony.

In 1665 a company of emigrants from Barbadoes settled at a place near the present city of Wilmington, and called it the Clarendon County Colony. These two colonies were both included in what was afterwards known as North Carolina.

The proprietors of Carolina contemplated founding a great empire, and an elaborate constitution called the "Grand Model" was drawn up by Shaftesbury and the philosopher John Locke. This scheme was a sort of feudal system, entirely unsuited to the wants and condition of the settlers, and when it was tried upon the colonies it proved utterly impracticable.

In 1670 a company of emigrants from England settled near the mouth of the Ashley River in South Carolina. This settlement was known as the Carteret County Colony. About ten years later the colonists laid the foundations of the city of Charleston, at the junction of the Ashley and Cooper Rivers. After the revocation of the Edict of Nantes great numbers of French Huguenots came over to Charleston, and their industry, refinement, and morality made an impress upon the growing town.

African slaves were introduced into the colony to such an extent by planters from Barbadoes that in a few years they doubled the whites in numbers.

The Carolinas existed as one province until 1729, when, on account of disagreements between the proprietors and the people, the colony was divided into North and South Carolina, each becoming a royal province.

1664. Settlement of New Jersey.

New Jersey was originally a part of the Dutch colony of New Netherlands. When New Netherlands came into the possession of the Duke of York, he sold the portion between the Hudson and the Delaware Rivers to Lord Berkeley and Sir George Carteret. The tract was divided between the new proprietors and named the "Jerseys" in honor of Carteret, who had been governor of the island of Jersey in the English Channel.

The first settlement in New Jersey was made by emigrants from Long Island in 1664, and was called Elizabethtown. Quakers, Scotch Presbyterians, and other persecuted classes of people gradually occupied the country.

In 1682 the Jerseys were purchased by William Penn. Constant trouble prevailed among the settlers concerning the land titles, and in 1702 the proprietors gave up their rights and New Jersey became a royal province.

1665. The Great Plague in London.

In the year 1665 London was visited by a terrible plague. Although the plague had often been in the country before, this was the most awful visitation of all. Those who had the means fled from the city. The shops were shut up; the streets were silent and deserted. When the plague entered a house it was marked with a red cross, and on the door was written the words, "Lord have mercy on us." The deaths became so numerous that the dead-carts moved around day and night gathering up the victims, whose uncoffined remains were hurriedly thrown into pits.

In July, August, and September the deaths rose from one to ten thousand per week, and in one single night four thousand are said to have perished. Evelyn, a contemporary writer, says in his Diary, "I went all along the city and suburbs from Kent Street to St. James',—a dismal passage, . . . the shops shut up, and all in mournful silence as not knowing whose turn it might be next."

During the six months that the plague raged one hundred thousand persons died from the disease.

1666. The Great London Fire.

In the year 1666, while the city of London was still suffering from the plague, a great fire broke out. It originated in the east end of the city, at the king's baker's, it is said, and was an accident, though it was supposed at the time that the Roman Catholics were the incendiaries.

London was then built chiefly of wood, and the fire spread very rapidly. From the Tower to the Temple it raged for three days, when its course was checked by blowing up houses with gunpowder, thus making gaps that the fire could not leap. Ten thousand houses and innumerable churches were reduced to ashes. The loss of life was exceedingly small, but the amount of property destroyed was tremendous. The

booksellers of Paternoster Row alone lost seven hundred and fifty thousand dollars in books.

This conflagration proved, after all, to be a blessing to the public, for it destroyed the dirty, ill-ventilated houses in which the plague still lurked, and burned out the filth in the close and narrow streets. When the city was rebuilt the streets were widened, and the plague has never since made its appearance.

1674. John Milton.

John Milton, one of England's greatest poets, was born in London in 1608. His father, who was a copying lawyer of considerable means, secured for his son the best educational advantages. At the age of sixteen Milton entered Christ College at Cambridge. His personal beauty was very remarkable. His fair complexion, slight figure, and innocent life caused him to be styled by his fellow-collegians the "Lady of Christ's." Though destined for the Church, Milton resolved early in his university career to become an author. While at college he wrote Latin elegies of great merit. He left the university in 1632, and spent the next five years in reading and study. During this time he wrote his exquisite minor poems "L'Allegro," "Il Penseroso," "Comus," and others. These poems contrast strikingly in their delicate fancies and idyllic treatment with those he produced after twenty years' conflict in public life. On the death of his mother in 1637 he left England and travelled in France and Italy. He had intended to extend his travels to Sicily and Greece, but the political troubles existing between Charles I. and the people induced Milton to return home. The effect of Milton's intercourse with eminent Continental scholars and authors had been to quicken his literary ambition, and he determined to write a great poem, either epic or dramatic. His meditations were interrupted by the civil war, and during the

whole era of Puritan supremacy he appears only as a polemical prose-writer and champion of the revolution. In 1643 he married Mary Powell, who lived with him one month and then returned to her father's home, saying that she disliked "Milton's spare diet and hard study." Milton's chief and singular ground of complaint was that his wife would not *talk*. His domestic troubles led him to write a number of articles upon the subject of divorce, in which he advanced the doctrine that moral incompatibility justifies divorce. In 1645 a reconciliation was effected between him and his wife and she returned to his home.

Upon the establishment of the Commonwealth Milton was appointed foreign secretary to the Council. This office he filled with great ability. His eyesight had been failing for several years, and in 1653 he became entirely blind. He continued, however, to write many of the more important state papers until the Restoration, which he opposed to the very last.

After the accession of Charles II. a warrant was issued for Milton's arrest, but he lived in concealment until the Act of Indemnity placed him in safety.

After the death of his first wife Milton married again, but his second wife lived only fifteen months, and after remaining a widower eight years he married the third time. This marriage proved a very unhappy one, his daughters living in constant quarrel with their step-mother. Amid domestic infelicity, in blindness and pain, Milton meditated and dictated his great poems "Paradise Lost" and "Paradise Regained." The former was sold to a bookseller in 1667 for five pounds in hand and the promise of the same sum on the sale of a certain number of copies. Among his later prose publications is a "History of Britain."

In his last years Milton was afflicted with gout, which caused his death in 1674. He belonged to no religious communion and never had social prayers in his family, although he passed much

of his time in religious reading and meditation. He was buried in the church of St. Giles, London.

As an epic poet Milton has no rival in the grandeur of his subject and the power of his style. His greatest work, "Paradise Lost," is a poem without a model and without a copy.

1682. Settlement of Pennsylvania.

In 1680, William Penn, son of the renowned Admiral Penn, applied to Charles II. of England for the privilege of founding a Quaker commonwealth in America. The following year Charles granted him a tract of land west of the Delaware River, which the king himself named Pennsylvania. Penn immediately sent over three shiploads of emigrants, and in 1682 sailed himself for the New World with one hundred settlers. A number of Swedes and Dutch had previously settled in the domain granted to Penn. These were treated with consideration by Penn, who promised that they should still be governed by their own laws.

One of Penn's first acts was to make a treaty with the Indians, from whom he obtained lands by fair purchase. The friendly relations thus established were never broken. Not a drop of Quaker blood was ever shed by an Indian.

Penn purchased from the Swedes land lying between the Delaware and Schuylkill Rivers, where he located his capital city, which he called Philadelphia,—the city of brotherly love.

Under Penn's wise and peaceful government his colony had a more rapid growth than any other in America excepting Massachusetts.

Pennsylvania remained in the possession of Penn and his heirs until the Revolution.

1683. Siege of Vienna.

During the century following the reign of Soliman the Magnificent the Turks waged

almost incessant war with Austria, Poland, and Russia, extending the Ottoman dominions at the expense of these neighbors, and, although the Turkish empire gave unmistakable signs of decay, it was still a formidable enemy.

The last great aggressive movement of the Ottomans against Christendom was the siege of Vienna in 1683. Kara-Mustapha, Grand Vizier of Turkey, hoping to conquer the provinces between the Danube and the Rhine, marched with an army of nearly half a million men upon this fatal enterprise. Vienna was at that time garrisoned by only eleven thousand men, under Count Stahremberg, as brave a man as the Count Salm, who withstood the first siege of Vienna by Soliman I. in 1529. The German emperor Leopold, not having sufficient means to enable him to withstand so formidable an invasion, called to his aid the famous King of Poland, John Sobieski. The Poles were just then at peace with Turkey, but Sobieski cared very little about such obligations, and he advanced to the relief of Vienna with twenty thousand Poles and about fifty thousand German auxiliaries.

The siege, which began on the 15th of June, was being prosecuted with great vigor. The walls were shattered by the Turkish artillery, and the heroic garrison was gradually exhausted by the constant assaults they were forced to repulse. By the end of August Kara-Mustapha had it in his power to carry the city by storm. But he waited day after day, hoping that the garrison would surrender, and that the wealth of the city would fall into his own hands, well knowing that if the place were carried by storm the treasure would inevitably become the booty of his soldiery. The relieving force of Sobieski was known to be on the march, but the avaricious vizier, trusting in his own power and superior numbers, made no effort to check Sobieski's approach. When at length the Poles stood on the hill overlooking Vienna, the imbecile and infatuated Mustapha coolly reclined in his tent,

and would not believe the news. Sobieski, who in former wars had given the Turks just cause to fear him, led his best troops direct for the Ottoman centre, where the vizier's tent was conspicuous, and his terrible presence was at last recognized. "By Allah! the king is really among us," exclaimed the Khan of the Crimea, and he galloped off in haste. The mass of the Ottoman army, struck with terror and dismay, broke and fled, hurrying the discomfited Mustapha with them. The worn-out garrison, inspired by the presence of their friends, dashed with them upon the trenches where the Janizaries still were, and cut these enemies to pieces. The camp and all the military stores of the Ottomans fell into the hands of the victorious army of Sobieski.

This great victory over the Moslems caused great rejoicing throughout Christendom. Improving on Cæsar's proud message to the Roman senate, Sobieski announced his victory to the pope in the words, "I came, I saw, *God* conquered."

1685. Death of Charles II. Accession of James II.

Charles II. began his reign by choosing the wise and virtuous Earl of Clarendon for his lord chancellor. Cromwell's army was disbanded, and a general pardon was granted to all who had favored Oliver's government, excepting ten of the late king's judges. These regicides were immediately put to death. The bodies of Cromwell and several other Independents were taken from their graves and publicly hanged. With these exceptions the king showed great clemency towards the leaders of the revolution.

Although Charles II. had signed the Scottish Covenant he now declared that Presbyterianism was no religion for a gentleman, and in 1662 Parliament passed an act requiring all ministers to use the Book of Common Prayer in their service. This attempt to compel all to worship

according to the forms of the Episcopal Church was resisted, and hundreds of dissenting clergymen were in consequence turned out of their livings and left penniless.

The bad traits in the king's character rapidly began to show themselves. He was idle and reckless, and more openly and shamefully immoral than any king the English ever had. He resorted to all sorts of mean tricks to secure money for the gratification of his wicked pleasures. He married Catherine of Portugal for money, and then spent her dowry upon his dissolute companions and treated his wife with shameful neglect. Everything sober and religious was ridiculed at his court, and scenes of revelry and riot alone occupied the attention of Charles and his profligate courtiers. To supply additional means for his extravagant pleasures, Charles sold the town of Dunkirk, Cromwell's most splendid conquest, to the French king. He also plunged into a war with Holland, because he wished to have control of the supplies voted by Parliament to carry on the war. Charles spent the money not upon ships for the navy but for his own selfish purposes, and the result was that the Dutch defiantly entered the harbors, burned the ships lying off Chatham, and even sailed up the Thames nearly to London. Peace was declared soon after.

Loud remonstrances were now heard against the king for misspending the money raised for the defence of the kingdom. Lord Clarendon, who disapproved of the king's course, was dismissed from office, and through his enemies in Parliament was banished from the kingdom. Charles then took for his advisers five worthless and unprincipled men known as the Cabal.* This word has ever since been used to denote a clique of political schemers.

Charles joined Holland and Sweden in the

* These men were so called because the initials of their names spelled the word Cabal. They were Clifford, Arlington, Buckingham, Ashley, and Lauderdale.

"Triple Alliance" in 1668 against the ambitious projects of Louis XIV. But while he thus openly professed hostility towards Louis, he secretly made a treaty with the French monarch to fight against the Dutch on promise of a pension of two hundred thousand pounds a year! But the war against the Dutch became so unpopular in England that peace was once more declared between the two countries (1674).

Several years later the English were greatly alarmed by rumors of a "Popish Plot" to assassinate the king and massacre all the Protestants. Titus Oates, a man afterwards proven to be of infamous character, came forward as the chief witness. Other false witnesses confirmed his tale, and before the imposture was discovered many innocent Roman Catholics were put to death. About this time Parliament passed the famous "Habeas Corpus Act," which prevented the king from keeping even the meanest subject in prison beyond a certain time, and compelled him to grant the prisoner a fair trial.

The last event of importance during this reign was a conspiracy known as the Rye-House Plot. There were really two plots,—one for working reforms in the government, the other for the assassination of the king. But both were discovered at once and were included under the one name. Two illustrious men connected with the former, Lord William Russell and Algernon Sidney, were put to death, besides others of less note (1683).

Two years later the king died. His gay disposition and witty good nature had won for him the name of the "Merry Monarch," and to the last he remained popular with certain classes of his subjects. One of his witty courtiers estimated his character very correctly when he affixed the following verse to the king's bedroom door :

"Here lies our sovereign lord the king,
Whose word no one relies on;
He never said a foolish thing
And never did a wise one."

Charles II. was succeeded by his brother, James II., a very unpopular man, dreaded and disliked by nearly all the country.

1685. Revocation of the Edict of Nantes.

The Edict of Nantes was issued by Henry IV. of France in 1598 for the benefit of the Huguenots, who at that time enjoyed no protection under the laws of the land. This edict granted the Huguenots not only religious toleration but also civil and political rights, and under its fostering and protecting influence the Huguenots became good, quiet, industrious citizens and subjects. They included in their ranks the most skilful artisans in the land. They were workers in iron, paper-makers, linen-weavers, silk and woollen manufacturers,—in fact, were adepts in all the most important industries of the country. Sheltered by the Edict of Nantes the Huguenots lived peaceably and contentedly until the reign of Louis XIV. After Louis assumed the reins of government himself, he showed his hostility to the Huguenots by shutting against them all offices and professions of distinction, and in a short time by establishing a regular system of persecution. To crown his work he finally revoked the Edict of Nantes (1685), thus removing from the Huguenots all protection of law. He was influenced in this step by the celebrated Madame de Maintenon. The Protestant worship was forbidden, all children were to be educated in the Roman Catholic faith, and terrible penalties were to be visited upon any Huguenots who attempted to leave the country. Notwithstanding these severe and cruel measures, thousands of the Huguenots fled across the borders, carrying their arts, their talents, their industry, into other lands. England, Germany, Switzerland, and even Sweden received accessions of skilled and earnest workmen, who spread refinement and taste among the artisans of those countries and enabled them to compete with the French in the markets of the world.

Louis rejoiced when he felt that God was worshipped with no heterodox ceremonial from Calais to Marseilles. He imagined that his cruel and impolitic deed was the crowning splendor of his reign. After he discovered that he had driven from the land at least a quarter of a million of the thriftiest, the bravest, the most intelligent, the most industrious of his subjects, he became dimly aware of the misfortune he had brought upon France.

1688. Abdication of James II. Accession of William and Mary.

James II., although deservedly unpopular, became king of England in 1685 without any opposition. He promised to defend the Established Church and the laws of the land. Scarcely had he assumed the crown when the Duke of Monmouth, an illegitimate son of Charles II., invaded the kingdom. Monmouth had been connected with the Rye-House Plot, but had escaped to the Continent when the plot was discovered. Many supported Monmouth's claim to the throne, believing him to be the lawful son of Charles II., while they distrusted James because of his attachment to the Roman Catholic faith. But Monmouth's army was utterly defeated in the battle of Sedgemoor, and the unfortunate young duke was captured and beheaded. The soldiers who had won the battle were allowed to wreak their vengeance upon their prisoners, whom they treated with the most shocking brutality. These soldiers were under a savage colonel named Kirke, and they carried a banner with the sacred Lamb upon it in token of their Christianity. They were afterwards bitterly known as Kirke's Lambs. After the soldiers went away a commission was appointed under the infamous Judge Jeffries to pass through the insurgent district and punish all who had taken part in the rebellion. He opened at Winchester a circuit court long known as the Bloody Assize.

More than three hundred persons perished in this judicial massacre, and crowds who escaped death were doomed to suffer mutilation, imprisonment, or exile. When the brutal Jeffries returned to London, James rewarded his services by making him lord chancellor.

The king now began to unfold his grand design of becoming an absolute king and restoring Catholicism. His promise to defend the Established Church and the laws of the land was conveniently forgotten. In 1688 he issued a proclamation declaring that non-conformity to the Established Church should no longer be punished, and required that this declaration should be read in all the churches. The London bishops, whether they approved of these liberal sentiments or not, knew that the king had no right to make or unmake laws at his pleasure, and they were inclined to think that the king intended that this toleration should eventually be granted to Catholics alone. Seven of the bishops accordingly refused to read the Declaration, and they drew up a petition against it. James was furious, and he caused the bishops to be arrested and imprisoned in the Tower amid the most intense popular excitement. The bishops were brought to trial at Westminster Hall seven days later, and, contrary to the king's expectation and desire, they were acquitted. All London was filled with shouts and tears of gladness.

In the midst of these exciting events the queen gave birth to a son.* This was the hardest blow of all. A son would of course succeed his father in preference to a daughter, and those who had hoped that James's eldest daughter, Mary, Princess of Orange, would quietly succeed her father ere long, for James was growing old, were in despair. They finally determined to invite Mary's husband, William of Orange, to come with an

* This son was afterwards known as James the Pretender. It was believed by numbers of people that he was not the son of the king and queen, but that he had been smuggled into the palace and imposed upon the people as a prince. No one believes the story now.

army and save the liberties of England. William wished nothing better, and he began to make preparations for the expedition.

James awaking at last to a sense of his danger granted great concessions, but in vain. The people were estranged from him, and one by one his former friends deserted him. William landed with a strong armament in November, 1688, and James finding himself without support fled.

When William reached London he called a convention, which declared the throne vacant, and conferred the crown jointly upon William and Mary as king and queen of England. The son of James was shut out entirely from the succession. Thus was accomplished the bloodless revolution of 1688.*

1692. The Salem Witchcraft.

A belief in witchcraft has been prevalent for ages. Punishment of persons accused of it was first sanctioned by the Church of Rome a little more than three hundred years ago. This terrible superstition had a strong hold upon the minds of the people of England and also of their brethren in America, and the darkest page in the history of New England is that which records the Salem Witchcraft.

The English laws against witchcraft had been adopted in New England, and as early as 1648 several persons had suffered death for the alleged offence in the vicinity of Boston. The superstition of the people shrouded the whole colony in gloom.

Excitement upon the subject suddenly broke out at Danvers, then a part of Salem, in the spring of 1692 and spread like an epidemic. A

daughter and a niece of Samuel Parris, the minister, were attacked by a nervous disorder, and under the influence of their own superstitious belief they accused an old Indian servant-woman in the family of bewitching them. Parris tied the ignorant creature and whipped her until she confessed herself a witch. The alarm of the family spread to the community. The celebrated Cotton Mather, minister of Boston, had recently preached on the subject of witchcraft, and he held the doctrine that witches really existed, that they were dangerous, and ought to be punished by death. Notwithstanding these teachings there were those in the community, both at Boston and at Salem, who denounced witchcraft as a baleful superstition. Prominent among the disbelievers was the Rev. George Burroughs, formerly pastor of Parris's congregation at Salem. Something had to be done to save witchcraft from falling into contempt. A special court was accordingly appointed by Governor Phipps, who was a member of Cotton Mather's church, to go to Salem and judge a number of persons who had been accused of witchcraft by Parris and others. About one hundred and fifty in all were accused, including nine children. Fifty-five were tortured or frightened into a confession of witchcraft, and twenty were put to death, among them the Rev. George Burroughs. The diabolical superstition was carried to such an extent that they actually hanged a dog as a witch!

Various were the accusations brought against the victims, such as signing contracts with Satan, entering his employ and obeying his commands, eating red bread and drinking blood, afflicting other persons by pinching, pricking with pins, etc., when many miles distant from the victim, and other charges equally absurd.

A reaction finally took place in the public mind, and the governor ordered all those accused and not tried to be discharged from prison. Most of those who had participated as accusers in these terrible scenes afterwards confessed the

* William and Mary were not proclaimed king and queen until February, 1689, but the English at that time used the Old Calendar, their year beginning on the 25th of March. Hence we speak of the revolution of 1688.

wrong they had done, but the Rev. Cotton Mather, who on account of his position probably did more than any other man to promote the

delusion, clung to his belief and expressed his thankfulness that so many witches had met their just doom.

ENGLISH LIFE DURING THE SEVENTEENTH CENTURY.

THE STUART PERIOD.—1603-1714.

Language, Science, Learned Men, Useful Arts, etc.

The translation of the Bible made during the reign of James I. does not, as might be supposed, illustrate the actual state of the English language at that time. This translation was formed upon the basis of that of Parker's or the Bishop's Bible, made nearly forty years before, which had itself been founded upon the translation made under the direction of Archbishop Cranmer in the reign of Henry VIII. The translators sought to retain the antique form of language as nearly as they could, and were careful to avoid the use of new words that would have contrasted offensively with the prevailing style of diction. We are glad to see in the late revision of the Bible the same spirit of affectionate veneration for the genius and essential characteristics of its beautiful style. The language of our Bible is not, therefore, the language of King James's reign. It is not the language of Raleigh or Bacon. The Modern English which had begun to be spoken in the days of Elizabeth was the language of this period.

Much of the English literature of the period was theological, consisting of sermons and controversial tracts, that have for the most part passed into oblivion. One of the most learned

theologians of the early part of the period was Bishop Andrews, but the greatest English divine of the seventeenth century was Jeremy Taylor, the "Spenser" of English prose-writers. The greatest epic poet of modern ages lived and wrote during this century,—John Milton. The numerous play-writers of the time are totally eclipsed by the prince of dramatists,—William Shakespeare, the greatest poet of any age or country, yet of whose life so little is certainly known.

About the middle of the century the era of English newspapers begins. These papers were not in any way equal to our modern ones either in size or in the general character of the news published. Where there were no telegraph-lines the news from foreign lands would necessarily be meagre. The oldest English newspaper that has been discovered is a quarto pamphlet of a few leaves, entitled "The Diurnal Occurrences," being an account of the proceedings of the "Long Parliament" from November, 1640, to November, 1641. At first the newspapers were published once a week, but the people so fully appreciated them that ere long they came out twice or thrice a week. The news-letter now became an important feature of social life. Families in the country would subscribe to pay some resident of London who would gather scraps of news at the coffee-houses and various

pleasure-haunts of the capital and send this information to the country in the shape of a letter about once a week.

There were very few printing-presses in England except in London and at the universities, and books were scarce and dear. Great progress was made nevertheless in mathematical and physical sciences. The writings of Bacon excited a spirit of scientific observation and research; Newton's discoveries gave a great impulse to philosophy and astronomy; and Napier's invention of logarithms became one of the most active and efficient servants of all the sciences that depend upon calculation. In the physical sciences the most glorious event was the discovery of the circulation of the blood by Dr. William Harvey. The universal notion upon this subject was and had been from time immemorial that the veins were merely sacks of stagnant or at least unprogressive blood, and the arteries nothing more than air-tubes! Dr. Harvey encountered as much popular as professional opposition in the advancement of his new theory, which was considered a daring attack upon antiquity, common sense, and nature herself. But Harvey's discovery was destined to revolutionize medical science.

The only great mental philosopher of the latter part of the century was John Locke, author of the "Essay upon the Human Understanding." This was the first comprehensive survey of the whole mind and its faculties, and will always be recognized as a fundamental book in modern metaphysics. Pope was one of the most distinguished poets and Swift one of the greatest prose-writers of the latter part of the century.

The trade and industry of the country suffered considerable depression during the war between Charles I. and Parliament, but after the restoration of tranquillity and a settled government the industries of the country began to revive. The manufacture of fine woollen cloth, that had declined very seriously, was now resumed, and once more became a flourishing business. The

art of gardening advanced more rapidly than that of agriculture. By the middle of the century cherries, apples, pears, hops, and cabbages were cultivated in sufficient abundance to render the importation of these fruits and vegetables unnecessary. About the middle of the seventeenth century watches for the pocket were made for the first time in England. After the revolution of 1688 tea came into general use. This herb had been known and used in China and Japan from the remotest antiquity. Coffee was also introduced during this period by a merchant who brought home with him from Turkey a Greek servant accustomed to make this delicious beverage. Coffee-houses soon became popular and numerous. The revocation of the Edict of Nantes drove thousands of French artisans to England. Many of them were expert silk-weavers, and the looms of England soon produced through their ingenuity, superior taste, and skill a great variety of rich brocades and satins. The art of making fine writing-paper is supposed to have been introduced by these refugees. The printing of calicoes in imitation of the fabrics of India was commenced in London about 1676.

The national industry and enterprise of the English received new animation and vigor in all departments at the revolution of 1688, which brought universal security of person and property to every inhabitant of the kingdom.

Manners and Customs.

The furniture of the mansions of the English nobility and gentry acquired during the seventeenth century a degree of splendor and comfort scarcely surpassed by that of the present day. Paper and leather hangings were invented early in the century, and the walls of the wealthy were now enriched with the magnificent paintings of Rubens, Vandyke, Teniers, Rembrandt, and other great masters.

In the retinues and domestic attendance of the nobles of this period everything proclaimed that the era of feudal authority and grandeur had

departed. When the civil wars began no lord could drag after him a company of unwilling vassals to the field; the meanest hind was free to choose between king and Parliament. Retrenchment in household attendance was more than counterbalanced by an extravagance in dress and personal adornment that became an absolute frenzy. It is said that James I. almost daily figured in a new suit,—a humor soon copied by his courtiers. When the Duke of Buckingham was sent to France to escort the Princess Henrietta Maria to England on the occasion of her marriage to Charles I., the duke provided for this important mission a suit of white uncut velvet and a cloak, both set all over with diamonds, valued at four hundred thousand dollars, besides a feather made of diamonds. His sword, girdle, hat-band, and spurs were also studded with diamonds. Another suit he provided was of purple satin embroidered with pearls, and valued at one hundred thousand dollars. The costume of the Cavaliers of the time of Charles I. was the most picturesque of any period in English history. It consisted of a richly-embroidered cloak, broad-brimmed hat with long plume, silken doublet, knee-breeches, slashed boots, and gilt spurs. Towards the close of the reign of Charles II. cocked hats, straight square-cut coats, low shoes, and immense periwigs, which it was the custom to comb in public, came into vogue among the beaux of London.

The ladies of the period wore the long stomacher, tight sleeves terminating at the elbow, and flounced petticoat, which was disclosed by the long gown being looped completely back. The head-dress was exceedingly high in front. During the reign of Queen Anne this high cap was abandoned for smaller and more elegant head-dresses, much to the delight of Addison, who freely criticised in the columns of the "Spectator" fashions that he thought ridiculous.

To the charms of dress and address it was an advantage to the gallant if he added something of literary accomplishment. To compose

a good billet-doux was well; to be, or at least to pass for, somewhat of a linguist was better still; but to have the knack of improvising a few rhymes in laudation of a lady or her lapdog was a qualification that usually carried everything before it. The learning, however, of a literary beau generally consisted in little more than in having read the miscellaneous poems of the day, a few comedies, and in such an acquaintanceship with Ovid's *Epistles* (in English only) as enabled him to quote from them when the occasion required. The general style of courtship by which ladies were wooed and won comported with the character of the unintellectual coxcombs by whom the incense was offered, and in a love-speech angels, gods, furies, demons, and tortures "ran through all the mazes of metaphorical confusion." This ridiculous medley, uttered with pomp and fervor, on bended knee, beat down the strongest defences of a female heart, for the education of women had not advanced far enough to enable them to see the absurdity of such vapid lip-worship.

The quality of female education corresponded with the superficial frivolity of the other sex. A fashionable lady was thought to be learned enough if she could barely read and write, and if she could finish a letter without notoriously violating the common rules of orthography she might pass for a wit. A very little music, some skill in dancing, and as much arithmetic as sufficed for card-playing, made up the list of her external accomplishments.

The greater number of the houses in London were still built of wood, sometimes wood and brick, with the upper stories projecting over the shops below. The streets were lined with the gorgeous signs of coffee-houses, ale-houses, and shops, and by these landmarks people directed strangers on their way, for there were no numbers on the houses. The streets were crooked and narrow, and being unpaved they were damp and dirty even in dry weather, while in the rainy season they were almost ankle-deep in mud.

Thieves and robbers infested the city, assaulting and robbing any one they chanced to meet. The drunken and cowardly watchmen would or could give no protection. Shakespeare undoubtedly found in the streets of London the models for his watchmen in "Much Ado about Nothing," and there is probably as much truth as burlesque in his delineations.

Superstition flourished as vigorously as in the Middle Ages. Almost every old mansion in England was still ghost-haunted, and every parish was tormented by a witch. James I. had a personal quarrel with the whole race of witches, for during his matrimonial voyage to Denmark they had baptized a cat, by which they had raised a storm that almost wrecked his ship. He wrote, reasoned, and declaimed against witchcraft, and during his whole reign persecuted helpless old women who were supposed to be witches. Nor did his death cool the zeal which his folly had kindled. The persecution became still more rampant under the Long Parliament and Puritan supremacy, for it is estimated that more than three thousand persons were put to death for witchcraft between the year 1640 and the Restoration.

As money became more abundant through the increase of trade, the science of gastronomy was carefully cultivated. Cookery became an all-important study, but the artificial taste of the period produced the most villanous compounds. Butter, cream, marrow, ambergris, sugar, dried fruits, oranges, lemons, and all kinds of spices entered largely into the composition of almost every dish. On some occasions a coarse and clownish dish was a pleasing variety. In the year 1661 there was a great feast at Newcastle, and each guest was required to furnish his own dish of meat. Of course there was a great deal of competition for pre-eminence, but the specimen of Sir George Goring was pronounced a masterpiece. It consisted of four huge pigs, bitted and harnessed with ropes of sausage, all tied to a monstrous bag pudding!

Greater temperance in eating and drinking prevailed during the Commonwealth, from the ascendancy of Puritan principles, which were rigid and austere to a high degree. Music, dancing, festivals, and all sports and games were condemned by this rigid sect as unworthy of Christians. They knew, however, that men must have some social excitement, even though they should only meet to groan, and they endeavored to extract from religious meetings a compensation for their proscription of all ordinary amusements. Nothing that Shakespeare ever penned was equal in their eyes to a long sermon that plunged into the deepest abysms of theology. This was their feast of fat things. Sometimes the preacher, when he meant to give a very vigorous sermon, prepared for action by throwing off his cloak, after which he laid about him like a threshers. This was called "taking pains." The extreme sternness and sourness of the Puritans may be attributed to the spirit of contradiction excited by the levity and recklessness of their opponents, the Cavaliers, who on their part were driven to extremes by their disgust at the demureness and, as they deemed it, hypocritical sanctimoniousness of the Puritans. The Cavaliers dressed in gay clothing and were devoted to the curling of their love-locks; the Puritans cut their hair so close to the skull that their ears stood out in bold and painful relief and gave them a grim and ghastly appearance. Their clothing was dull in color and homely in cut. Upon the same principle of separation from the worldlings the Puritans affected a slowness of speech and a solemnity of tone that often degenerated into a snuffle or nasal twang, and their talk, even upon the most ordinary occasions, was liberally interlarded with texts of Scripture. These unfortunate peculiarities of manner obscured the noble moral qualities which the Puritans unquestionably possessed, and the masses of the people became heartily tired of the gloom and constraint of the Commonwealth. The Restoration of the monarchy in 1660 was hailed

with an absolute national frenzy. In this temper of the public mind the Restoration brought with it a tide of levity and licentiousness. The upper classes, encouraged by the royal example, resumed with fresh ardor the frivolity and profligacy which Puritanism had held in check. The country gentlemen were at this period rough and poorly educated. Seldom leaving their native county, they spent their time in hunting, attending fairs, and drinking. Drunkenness became an alarmingly common vice among this class. But beneath their roughness lay some sterling qualities, and in the present day the rural gentry form a polished and important class in English society.

The table in the baronial hall was still laden with the old festive hospitality, and the huge sirloins of beef and mighty plum-puddings seemed to laugh to scorn the innovations of the French cooks in London.

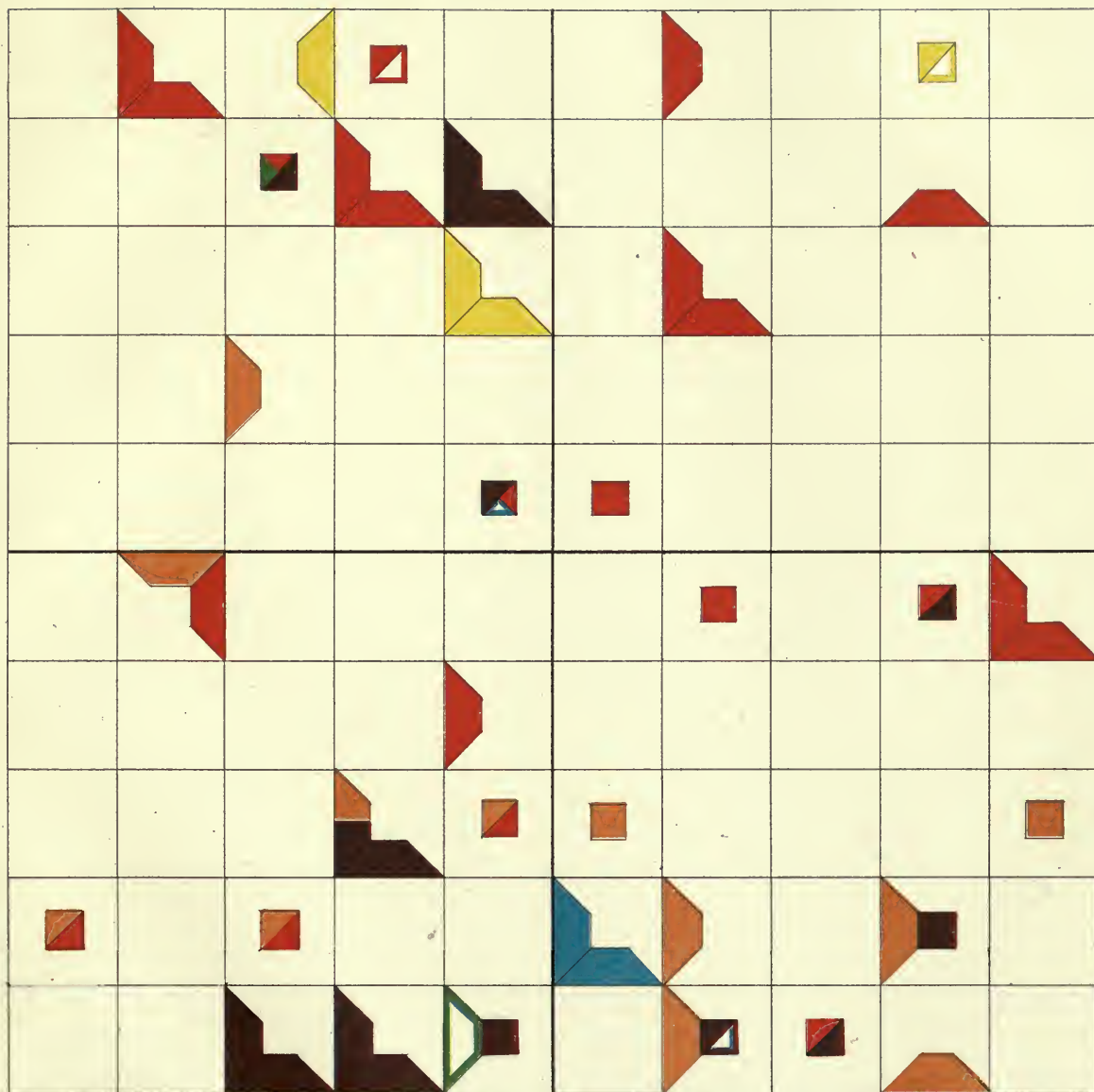
Four-fifths of the laboring classes were employed in agriculture. The highest wages they received averaged five shillings a week. The chief food of the poor was rye, barley, or oats. An enormous percentage of the population—no less than one-fifth the community—were paupers, but with the progress of trade and the increase of manufactures the wages of the poorer classes were increased, and the circumstances of the masses gradually improved.

EIGHTEENTH CENTURY.

CHRONOLOGY.

1702. William III. of England died; he was succeeded by his sister-in-law, Anne.—*Green, Eng.*, p. 682.
1703. St. Petersburg was founded by Peter the Great.—*Kel. Rus.*, p. 273.
1704. Gibraltar was captured by the English during the "War of the Spanish Succession."—*Say. Gib.*, p. 99; *Mor. Anne*, p. 49.
1707. The First Parliament of Great Britain assembled at Westminster.—*Mor. Anne*, p. 144; *Green, Eng.*, p. 687.
1709. Charles XII. of Sweden was defeated by Peter the Great at Pultowa.—*Volt. Chas. XII.*, p. 315; *Mor. Anne*, p. 168; *Kel. Rus.*, p. 289.
1713. The Treaty of Utrecht closed the "War of the Spanish Succession."—*Leck. Eng.*, vol. i. p. 122; *Mor. Anne*, p. 138.
1714. Queen Anne, the last Stuart sovereign of England, died; she was succeeded by George I. of Hanover.—*Green, Eng.*, p. 694; *Mor. Anne*.
1715. Louis XIV. of France died; he was succeeded by his great-grandson, Louis XV.—*James, Louis XIV.*, vol. ii. p. 510; *White, France*, p. 324; *Guiz. France*, ch. l.
1719. Joseph Addison, a famous English essayist, died.—*Mac. Es.*, vol. v. p. 321.
1725. Peter the Great of Russia died.—*Kel. Rus.*, p. 367; *Mor. Anne*, p. 158.
1727. George I. of England died; he was succeeded by his son, George II.—*Green, Eng.*, p. 702.
1727. Sir Isaac Newton, England's greatest philosopher, died.
1733. Georgia was settled by the English at Savannah under General Oglethorpe.—*Loss. U. S.*, p. 99.
1745. The English and Austrians were defeated by the French in the battle of Fontenoy.—*Rus. Mod. E.*, vol. ii. p. 438.
1746. Charles Edward, the Pretender to the English throne, was defeated in the battle of Culloden.—*Green, Eng.*, p. 1714; *Bright, Eng.*, p. 1007.
1752. Benjamin Franklin proved lightning and electricity to be the same.
1752. The Gregorian Calendar was adopted throughout the British empire.—*Bright, Eng.*, p. 1014.
1757. The British East India Empire was founded.—*Green, Eng.*, p. 721; *Mac. Es.*, vol. iv. p. 194.
1759. The English defeated the French on the Plains of Abraham, and Quebec was forced to surrender.—*Rus. Mod. E.*, vol. ii. p. 537.
1760. George II. of England died; he was succeeded by his son, George III.—*Green, Eng.*, p. 729.
1765. The Stamp Act was passed by the British Parliament.—*Mah. Eng.*, vol. v. p. 88; *Buch. Eng.*, vol. i. p. 342; *Loss. U. S.*, p. 213.
1774. Louis XV. of France died; he was succeeded by his grandson, Louis XVI.—*Guiz. France*, ch. lv.; *White, France*, p. 388.
1774. The First Continental Congress met at Philadelphia.—*Ban. U. S.*, vol. vii. p. 136.
1775. The first battle of the American Revolution was fought at Lexington, Massachusetts.—*Ban. U. S.*, vol. vii. p. 288; *Mah. Eng.*, vol. vi. p. 59.
1776. The Declaration of Independence was adopted by the American colonies.—*Ban. U. S.*, vol. viii. p. 462.
1780. Benedict Arnold attempted to betray West Point into the hands of the British.—*Ban. U. S.*, vol. x. p. 377.
1781. Cornwallis surrendered to Washington at Yorktown, Virginia.—*Ban. U. S.*, vol. x. p. 522.
1783. England acknowledged the Independence of the United States.—*Ban. U. S.*, vol. x. p. 578.
1786. Frederick the Great of Prussia died.—*Car. Fred.*, vol. xiii. p. 361; *Mac. Es.*, vol. v. p. 148.
1787. The Constitution of the United States was adopted.—*Loss. U. S.*, p. 355.
1789. The Great French Revolution began.—*Car. Fr. Rev.*, vol. i., books v., vi.; *Thiers, Fr. Rev.*, vol. i.; *Dy. Mod. E.*, book vi. ch. ix.; *Mor. Fr. Rev.*
1789. George Washington was elected first President of the United States.—*Irv. Wash.*, vol. iv. ch. xxxvii.
1793. Louis XVI. and Marie Antoinette were beheaded.

CHART OF XVIII CENTURY.



See Explanation of Chart
on page 9.

- | | |
|---------------|---------|
| England | Spain |
| United States | |
| Russia | Sweden |
| Germany | Poland |
| Prussia | Austria |
| France | Italy |

—*Car. Fr. Rev.*, vol. iii. pp. 134, 244; *Thiers, Fr. Rev.*, vol. ii. p. 22; *Jones, Mod. E.*, vol. iii. p. 307.

1794. Robespierre was beheaded and the **Reign of Terror** ended.—*Car. Fr. Rev.*, vol. iii. p. 358; *White, France*, p. 446; *Dy. Mod. E.*, book vii. ch. v.
1795. The **Directory** was established, and the Great French Revolution came to an end.—*Car. Fr. Rev.*, vol. iii. p. 396; *Fyffe, Mod. E.*, vol. i. p. 97.
1795. The kingdom of **Poland** was dismembered.—*Jones, Mod. E.*, vol. iii. let. ii.; *Lard. Cy., Pol.*, p. 246.

1797. **Napoleon** completed the conquest of Northern Italy.—*Dy. Mod. E.*, book vii. ch. viii.; *Jones, Mod. E.*, vol. iii. p. 341; *Lan. Nap. I.*, vol. i.

1797. **John Adams**, of Massachusetts, became **second** President of the United States.

1798. The French fleet was defeated by the English under Nelson in the battle of the **Nile**.—*South. Nel.*; *White, France*, p. 470.

1799. **George Washington** died at Mount Vernon, Virginia.—*Irv. Wash.*, vol. v. ch. xxxiv.

HISTORIC SKETCHES.

1702. Death of William III. Accession of Anne.

THE revolution of 1688, which placed William and Mary upon the throne, was the last great struggle in English history. Although it was accomplished peaceably in England, insurrections occurred in Scotland and Ireland, in both of which countries James II. had adherents. The Scottish rising was quickly subdued, but the events in Ireland were of much greater importance. James had fled to France beseeching the help of Louis XIV., for he was not inclined to give up his kingdom without striking a blow. Louis might not have cared much about James, but he hated William, the great Protestant leader of Europe, and he determined to assist James in recovering his dominions. Accordingly, James proceeded to Ireland, where the Roman Catholics welcomed him with enthusiasm. But William came with an army, defeated James's troops in the battle of the Boyne, and James, who had watched the battle from a safe place on top of a hill, galloped off to Dublin and hurried thence to France (1690). A final effort to restore James to the throne was made by Louis in 1692, but the French fleet

was defeated by the English and Dutch off Cape La Hogue, and James's hopes were forever quenched. William continued the war, for it was the main object of his life to curb and humble the power of Louis XIV. At last he forced Louis to recognize him as king of Great Britain and Ireland, and the treaty of Ryswick closed the war (1697).

It was during William's reign that Parliament acquired an influence that has never since been lost. The convention that offered the crown to William and Mary drew up a declaration of rights which, by act of Parliament, afterwards became law. The chief features of the Bill of Rights were that the king could raise no money except by consent of Parliament; that he could keep no standing army in time of peace; that he could neither make nor unmake laws; that the people might petition for a redress of grievances without fear of punishment; that the members of Parliament should be elected without the king's interference, and that they should be allowed freedom of discussion in Parliamentary debate.

Queen Mary's death in 1694 left William sole monarch of England. Mary was a most amiable and estimable princess, and her death, which

was caused by small-pox, then a most common and fatal disease, was a terrible sorrow to her husband.

In 1701 James II. died, and Louis XIV., to the astonishment and indignation of the English, acknowledged the young son of James, known as the Pretender, as king of England. This insult roused the English spirit, and William was preparing for a renewal of the war with France, when he died from the effects of a fall from his horse (1702).

William III. was a man of great abilities for war and statesmanship, and he was an excellent sovereign, but he was never popular with the English because of his cold and distant manners. Nor did William like England, which he called a villanous country, but to the end of his days he preferred his own flat Holland.

During this reign the Bank of England was incorporated and paper money came into use. Taxes were laid upon bachelors, widows, births, deaths, and marriages. William left no children, and was succeeded by his sister-in-law, Anne, second daughter of James II.

1703. Founding of St. Petersburg.

The city of St. Petersburg was founded by Peter the Great in 1703 at the mouth of the Neva River. The site—one of the most extraordinary ever selected—was in a pestilential swamp, where winter lasted eight months in the year, and where a storm from the west was sure to drive back the waters of the Neva and engulf the place. But Peter was not to be daunted in his new enterprise. Workmen were brought from various parts of the empire to assist in building the new city, and before a year had expired about thirty thousand houses and huts were raised. But the hardships and exposure to which the laborers were subjected carried them off with frightful rapidity, no less than one hundred thousand, it is said, perishing the first

year. St. Petersburg is built on piles sunk in the marsh, and this foundation extends as far beneath the surface as the church spires and palace domes tower above it.

The energy and perseverance of Peter and his successors have raised this city, whose very existence is almost a miracle, to a rank among cities of the first class in Europe.

1704. Capture of Gibraltar by the English.

The rocky promontory of Gibraltar, which stands like nature's monument at the entrance to the Mediterranean Sea, was known to the ancients as Mons Calpe, one of the Pillars of Hercules. None of the ancient writers mention that it was inhabited during their time, and it was not until the Mohammedan invasion of Spain that Gibraltar first occupied a place in the history of the world. On this rock the first footsteps of the great Moslem host were planted, and from this place streamed the mighty armies which established an infidel dynasty in Spain for upwards of eight hundred years. Excepting for an interval of twenty-four years the Moors retained possession of the fortress of Gibraltar until 1462, when it was successfully besieged by the Spaniards. For many years it was held by the Dukes of Medina-Sidonia, but in 1501 it was annexed to the crown of Spain. Two centuries it remained in the possession of Spain, although the Turks once made a desperate but unsuccessful attempt to capture it.

At length in 1701 the "War of the Spanish Succession" broke out, England joining Germany and Holland against France and Spain. An English fleet commanded by Admiral Rooke was sent to the Mediterranean in 1704 with a body of German troops under the Prince of Hesse to make a demonstration on the Spanish coast on behalf of the Austrian Archduke Charles, one of the competitors to the Spanish throne. •But the Spanish people showed no en-

thusiasm for the archduke, and Admiral Rooke, aware of the calumnies to which he would be subjected if he allowed the summer to pass away without achieving something of importance with the powerful armament under his command, held a council of war with his officers, the result of which was a resolution to make an attack upon Gibraltar.

The fortifications were at that time in very bad repair and the garrison was small. A letter was despatched to the Spanish governor of Gibraltar, Don Diego de Salinas, to surrender at discretion, but he refused and began to make preparations for defence. On the 23d of July twenty-two ships of the fleet commenced a cannonade, which was kept up with unabated fury for six hours, during which time not less than fifteen thousand shots were thrown into the town. The effects of this terrible bombardment upon the fortifications became apparent, and Rooke ordered the whole fleet of fifty-two ships to join in the attack and land the troops upon the isthmus which connects the rock with the mainland. At length the two principal positions of defence were captured, the Spanish artillery was destroyed, and the besieged, seeing no use of prolonging the contest, displayed a flag of truce. Honorable terms of capitulation were agreed upon, and Admiral Rooke took possession of the fortress in the name of Queen Anne.

The capture of Gibraltar was no source of material advantage to the English, but it pleased their pride mightily.

1707. The Constitutional Union of England and Scotland.

For more than one hundred years after the accession of James I. England and Scotland, although acknowledging the same sovereign, were separate kingdoms, each with its own parliament, laws, and coinage of money. Many difficulties had arisen between the two nations in

consequence, and they were on very bad terms. The necessity for a union of the two countries with equal privileges became so apparent that during the reign of Queen Anne a treaty of union was framed by commissioners appointed by both countries. After considerable opposition on the part of Scotland, the treaty passed the Scottish Parliament in 1706. The following year it was legalized by the English Parliament, and in October of the same year the First Parliament of Great Britain met at Westminster (1707).

The chief terms of the union were that the two kingdoms should be forever united into one nation under the name of Great Britain; that the nation was to be represented by one parliament, composed of members from both Scotland and England; that the Scots should be allowed to trade with all the British colonies; that the laws relating to property and private rights should not be changed except for the good of the Scottish people; that the Scottish courts should remain as they were; and that the Presbyterian Church should still be maintained in Scotland.

The constitutional union of the two countries has been of incalculable good to Scotland.

1709. Battle of Pultowa. (Charles XII. of Sweden.)

Charles XII. succeeded to the throne of Sweden in 1697 at the age of fifteen. From his earliest boyhood he loved to play at soldiers and he had a passionate admiration for Alexander the Great. He afterwards became the great rival of Peter the Great.

Before Charles had been two years on his throne Peter the Great formed an alliance with the King of Denmark and Poland for the purpose of dividing the boy king's dominions between them. Hearing of it, Charles immediately prepared for war.

Leaving Stockholm in 1700, he sailed first for Copenhagen. In this, his first campaign, Charles gave evidence of the impetuous courage for which he was afterwards distinguished; for on nearing the place of disembarkation he leaped into the sea, and was the first man on the enemy's soil. Copenhagen was bombarded by the Swedish fleet, and would have been closely besieged but the Danish king, Frederick IV., sued for peace.

Having humbled this foe, Charles marched to the relief of Narva, a small town of Swedish Livonia, then besieged by Peter the Great with an army of forty thousand men. Taking advantage of a storm of wind and snow which blew directly in the faces of the enemy, the King of Sweden with but nine thousand men killed or captured nearly the whole Russian army (1700). When Peter, who was not in the battle, heard the vexing news, he said, "I know very well that these Swedes will have the advantage of us for a time, but they will at length teach us to beat them."

Charles next marched against Poland, and in three campaigns reduced that country, deposing the king and conferring his crown upon another.

At last the conqueror turned towards Russia. "Nowhere but at Moscow will I treat with Peter," said the haughty Swede, when the czar made proposals of peace. "Ah," retorted Peter, "my brother Charles wants to act the part of Alexander, but he shall not find me a Darius." Charles advanced into Russia, but when only ten days' march from Moscow he turned aside into the Ukraine, the land of the Cossacks, on the promise of aid from their chief, Mazeppa. But fear of the czar caused most of the Cossacks to desert their chief, the supplies upon which Charles depended were captured by Peter's army after a series of fights in which more than eight thousand Swedes perished, and when the spring of 1709 arrived, battle, famine, and the deadly frosts of Russia had reduced

Charles's army of nearly eighty thousand men to barely twenty-four thousand, and only half of these were Swedes. With this ragged, half-famished army the Swedish king laid siege to Pultowa, where the czar had supplies of provisions and military stores, and which commanded the passes leading to Moscow. The czar advanced to the relief of the place with sixty thousand fresh troops, and a great battle was fought,—a battle which was to decide the fate of Russia. On each side the troops fought obstinately and bravely, but at last the hitherto invincible Swedes were overpowered by the great disparity in numbers, and they were forced to flee. It was a hopeless and irreparable defeat. With a few hundred of his followers Charles escaped into Turkey, where he stirred up war between the Turks and Russia. He remained in Turkey five years, completely wearing out his welcome, but he would take no hint about returning home. Meanwhile, Peter the Great helped himself to the Swedish provinces of Livonia, Ingria, and Finland, and the Kings of Prussia and Denmark appropriated the Swedish dominions south of the Baltic.

Charles XII. left Sweden at his death a wreck of her former greatness, and she has never since risen above the condition of a second-rate power.

1713. Treaty of Utrecht. "War of the Spanish Succession."

The "War of the Spanish Succession" was caused by the attempt of Louis XIV. to place his grandson, Philip of Anjou, upon the throne of Spain.

When the Spanish king, Charles II., died he named Philip as his successor, but the Emperor of Germany, also related to Charles II., claimed the Spanish throne for his own son, the Archduke Charles. The Spanish empire comprised, besides Spain itself, a great portion of Italy and the Netherlands, and possessions

in the New World. The crafty and ambitious Louis XIV. saw in the accession of Philip the future consolidation of France and the Spanish empire, and after a pretence at deliberation he sent Philip to take possession of the Spanish throne, saying with significance, "There are no more Pyrenees." But the nations of Europe had no notion of allowing the Pyrenees to be blotted out, and, aroused by Louis's political designs, England, Holland, Portugal, and the German empire united to support the claim of the emperor's son. The war began in 1702.

The allies had two great generals to lead their armies, the English Marlborough and Prince Eugene of Savoy. Louis's famous commanders, the Prince of Condé and Turenne, were dead, and the generals he now had, men of only moderate genius, were greatly cramped in their plans because Louis insisted on their observing punctually all his orders when he was incapable of directing military affairs.

The war was conducted in Belgium, Germany, Italy, and Spain, but the campaigns in Belgium were the most important. The decisive event of the war was the battle of Blenheim, fought in 1704. Marlborough was the hero of this action, which resulted in victory for the allies, and destroyed forever Louis's proud visions of universal conquest. The Bavarians who assisted the French in this battle now submitted to the German emperor, and during the remainder of the war Louis fought only on the defensive.

The Emperor Leopold died in 1705, and his eldest son, Joseph, who succeeded him, died in 1711. On the death of Joseph his brother, the Archduke Charles, was elected to the imperial throne. The allies were no longer interested in supporting Charles's claim to Spain, for the objections against the union of the German empire and Spain were even stronger than those against the union of Spain and France. Louis XIV., whose resources were utterly exhausted, was only too glad to close the struggle, and negotiations were accordingly set on foot. Peace was

declared at Utrecht in 1713. Philip was permitted to remain king of Spain on condition of resigning all claims to the French crown. France ceded to England Nova Scotia, Newfoundland, and Hudson's Bay in the New World. England also kept Gibraltar and the island of Minorca in the Mediterranean. In 1714 a treaty was arranged between France and the empire, by which all the Spanish possessions in Italy and the Spanish Netherlands were given to the German empire.

So ended the "War of the Spanish Succession," in which the military power of France was completely broken. This war, which extended to the English and French colonies in America, was known there as Queen Anne's War.

1714. Death of Queen Anne. Accession of George I.

Queen Anne succeeded to the throne of Great Britain and Ireland in 1702. Her husband, Prince George of Denmark, took no share in the government. The real governors of both queen and country were two very clever people, Churchill and his wife, who were raised by the queen to be Duke and Duchess of Marlborough. The duchess had been for years the queen's most intimate friend. She was a woman of imperious and meddling temper, and would never have been tolerated had not the queen been a person of exceedingly meek and patient disposition. Marlborough was a remarkable man, whose natural genius, for he was uneducated, raised him to be the greatest soldier and commander of the age.

About the time Anne came to the throne the great "War of the Spanish Succession" broke out, and England joined Holland and the German empire against Louis XIV. in his efforts to add Spain to his other dominions. The command of the English forces was given to Marlborough, who achieved a series of bril-

liant victories over the French, the most famous being the battle of Blenheim in 1704.

On Marlborough's return to England the Tories, who had come into power, accused him of dishonesty in connection with army contracts. The accusation proved to be true, and the duke was deprived of all his offices. The queen took another favorite, and the Marlboroughs went to the Continent. After the death of Anne, Marlborough was called back to England and raised to his former posts. When he died he was buried with great honors in Westminster Abbey.

In 1713 peace was concluded at Utrecht. Queen Anne died the following year. She was popular with the nation chiefly because she was an Englishwoman, and the people were glad to have again a sovereign of their own blood. But Anne was not an interesting character. She was very susceptible to flattery and blindly guided by favorites. Macaulay says of her, "When in good humor she was meekly stupid, and when in bad humor she was sulkily stupid."

Queen Anne's reign is noted as a brilliant literary period, and has been called the Augustan Age of England. Addison, Steele, Defoe, and Swift were the chief prose-writers. Pope was the leading poet. The most important political event of the reign was the union of the Parliaments of England and Scotland.

During William's reign it was settled that if neither he and Mary nor Anne left any children the crown should go to Prince George of Hanover, whose mother was the grand-daughter of James I. Accordingly, Anne, whose children all died young, was succeeded by George I. of the house of Brunswick.

Anne was the last sovereign of the house of Stuart.

1715. Death of Louis XIV. Accession of Louis XV.

Louis XIV. succeeded to the throne of France when only five years of age. His mother, Anne

of Austria, was regent, but she gave the entire control of the government into the hands of her able prime minister, Cardinal Mazarin.

The "Thirty Years' War" was still in progress, and after its close hostilities with Spain continued. The expenses of these foreign wars and the extravagance of the court caused the government to impose unjust and oppressive taxes upon the people, and in consequence an insurrection broke out in 1648, called the War of the Fronde because the rebels were compared derisively to the street gamins of Paris, who fought with slings (*fronde*). Mazarin was compelled to quit the country. After five years of civil war the Frondeurs were crushed, and Mazarin returned in triumph to Paris. He continued to direct the government until his death in 1661. He was a very avaricious man, and it is said that he had two-thirds of the national coin in his money-chests when he died.

Louis had tolerated the yoke of his prime minister with great impatience, and he now determined to rule without a prime minister. When his officers inquired who was to be consulted upon affairs of business, Louis promptly replied, "Myself;" and from that time onward until his death, more than half a century, he was absolute master of the lives and destinies of the French people. While centring all power in himself, Louis was assisted by the ablest statesmen of the age. Colbert was his minister of finance, and Louvois his minister of war. Aided by these two men, Louis now began the most splendid period of his reign.

During his long reign Louis engaged in a great many wars, for he thirsted for absolute power everywhere. His first warlike adventure after he assumed control of the government was to seize a portion of the Spanish Netherlands, under the pretext that the dowry of his wife, the Spanish Infanta, had never been paid, and that therefore he was not bound to keep the treaty of the Pyrenees, in which he had renounced all claim to the Spanish throne and its possessions.

England, Holland, and Sweden now formed an alliance against him, and for the moment he was arrested in his career of conquest by this formidable confederacy. But he could not forgive the little Dutch republic for presuming to join an alliance against him, and having won Charles II. to his side by means of bribes, Louis proceeded to invade Holland with a splendid army, commanded by the great generals Turenne and Condé. But the Dutch held out manfully under their leader, William, Prince of Orange, and after six years of war, during which Louis tried in vain to break their spirit, peace was declared at Nimeguen (1678). Louis was not altogether disappointed at the result of the war, for he obtained a goodly slice of the Spanish Netherlands.

In 1685, Louis dealt his own country a deadly blow by revoking the Edict of Nantes. The Protestant princes of Europe felt themselves insulted and threatened by this measure, and in the following year England, Holland, Sweden, Germany, Denmark, and even Spain joined in war against the haughty pretensions of the "Grand Monarch." William of Orange, now king of England and Louis's mightiest foe, led the armies of the league. The war opened in 1689, and was carried on by land and sea for seven years. Then, utterly exhausted, Louis gladly assented to the treaty of Ryswick (1697).

Unmindful of the poverty-stricken condition of his kingdom, Louis soon after engaged in the "War of the Spanish Succession." Thirteen years of war brought his already exhausted kingdom to the verge of ruin.

Louis died in 1715, two years after the close of the "War of the Spanish Succession." "I have loved war too much" was his dying confession, but it came too late to benefit his country. Louis XIV. was styled the "Great" by his flattering courtiers, but the vastness of his military enterprises, the magnificence of his court ceremonials, and his munificent patronage of science and letters are his only claims to the title. His

character presents no elements of true greatness. All his efforts were for his own personal aggrandizement. Fénelon said of him with severe charity, "God will have compassion upon a prince beset from his youth up by flatterers."

The reign of Louis XIV. is called the Augustan Age of French literature. Molière, Corneille, Racine, dramatists, Fénelon and Bossuet, the great divines, Madame de Sévigné, La Rochefoucauld, La Fontaine, and many other distinguished writers and scholars, flourished during this period.

Louis XIV. died in the seventy-seventh year of his age. His son and grandson had died a short time before, and the sceptre of France fell to his great-grandson, a child of five years, who succeeded as Louis XV.

1719. Joseph Addison.

Joseph Addison, an English author of distinction, was born in 1672. He was the son of a clergyman, and was educated at Oxford. He intended to adopt his father's vocation, but the time was one of political warfare, and when his ability became known to party leaders he was persuaded to devote his services to the state. Through the influence of Lord Somers, Addison secured a pension of three hundred pounds a year to enable him "to travel and otherwise qualify himself to serve His Majesty." While on his travels he wrote four acts of his tragedy "Cato." From Italy he wrote a letter to Lord Halifax, which is considered the most elegant of his poetical productions. After two years of travel Addison found it necessary to return to England because his pension, which had been obtained through friends who were now out of the ministry, was discontinued. Soon after his return he published his travels, which abound in useful information and judicious reflections.

The victory at Blenheim afforded him an occasion for the display of his poetical talents in the poem entitled "The Campaign," which

celebrates the wisdom and courage of Marlborough. For this poem Addison was appointed commissioner of appeals. In 1708 he entered Parliament, and, although he was a conscientious business member, he had not sufficient self-possession to become an orator. In 1709 he became secretary to Lord Wharton, lord-lieutenant of Ireland. Towards the close of his term as Irish secretary he frequently contributed to the "Tattler," a paper published by Sir Richard Steele. Such was the superiority of Addison's writing that Sir Richard said "that he himself fared like a distressed prince who called a powerful neighbor to his aid and was undone by his auxiliary."

When Addison returned to London he earnestly co-operated with Steele in establishing and carrying on the "Spectator," a weekly paper, now one of the classics of the language. The first number appeared on March 1, 1711. This work forms an epoch in literary history and in that of the periodical press. It was a style of writing peculiarly adapted to Addison's talents. Through it he became a lay preacher, a popular critic, a graceful moralist, and a genial philosopher. His remarks upon Milton's "Paradise Lost" awakened his countrymen to a just appreciation of that sublime work. His comments on the social absurdities and infraction of the minor morals of the day produced a salutary reform.

After the death of Queen Anne, Addison again held office under government. He died in 1719, and was buried in the Poets' Corner in Westminster Abbey.

Addison's writings have instructed and charmed a greater variety of minds than those of any contemporary authors.

1725. Peter the Great.

The death of Feodor III. of Russia in 1682 left the crown by right of birth to his brother

Ivan, but the imbecility of this prince made him incapable of governing, and he and his half-brother Peter, a boy of ten years, were proclaimed joint sovereigns, their sister Sophia acting as regent. Through the intrigues of this ambitious woman and her prime minister, Galitzin, an insurrection of the strelitzes (guards organized by Ivan the Terrible) took place in 1689, and Peter saved his life by fleeing to a monastery. There gathering around him the soldiers who were attached to his party, he defeated the conspirators, and, although only seventeen years of age, he seized the sceptre, and from that time forward was the sole sovereign of Russia. Galitzin escaped death through the intercession of a relative who was a favorite of the youthful czar, but Sophia was locked up in a convent for the rest of her life.

Among Peter's foreign companions was a young Swiss adventurer named Lefort. To this remarkable man Russia is indebted for the first impulse towards civilization. Lefort possessed wonderful powers of observation, and he was capable of forming a correct judgment of what he saw. He gave Peter an idea of the sciences and arts of Europe, and taught him the great superiority of the disciplined troops of the more enlightened European nations over the anarchical soldiery of Russia. It is said that on being made sensible of the barbarism of his countrymen, Peter shed tears of generous sorrow. In the face of national prejudices he set to work to reform the army, as the right hand of his power. Under the direction of Lefort and a Scotchman named Gordon troops were equipped and drilled in the European fashion. Peter next determined to establish a navy. He had no seaport except Archangel in the frozen regions of the north, for the Swedes ruled on the Baltic and the Turks held the empire of the Black Sea. At the expense of these neighbors Peter proposed to provide himself with sea-coast. He employed foreign shipwrights to build him some vessels of war, and thus equipped he

sailed down the Don River, and, after two campaigns, drove the Turks from Azov, the key to the Black Sea (1696). The Swedes were not disturbed just yet.

Peter next determined to visit the principal courts of Europe to improve himself in the details of government, and in the knowledge of naval affairs and of the useful arts, which he wished to introduce among his countrymen. His intention was regarded with the deepest disgust by his bigoted and ignorant subjects, who held all foreigners in contempt; and the turbulent strelitzes, who saw themselves supplanted by the regiments disciplined in the European manner, laid a plot to murder their czar and all the foreigners set over them as masters. The plot was fortunately disclosed to Peter in time by one of the conspirators, and the would-be assassins were put to death with the most excruciating tortures.

Order being restored, Peter fitted out a splendid embassy under Lefort, which set out for Holland in 1697. Peter went along disguised as a subordinate attendant. Hastening in advance as they neared Holland, he reached Amsterdam two weeks before the ambassadors and hired himself out as a ship-carpenter at the great ship-building village of Sardam near Amsterdam. Here he led the same life as the common shipwrights,—cooked his own food, worked hard at the forges, the rope-yards, the saw-mills, and yet from his wretched hut he kept an eye on the vast concerns of his empire. To practical ship-building and kindred trades he added various studies, such as natural philosophy, astronomy, and geography. He also attended the lectures on anatomy at Amsterdam. So intense was his thirst for knowledge that, while examining some old instruments of papal torture, he expressed a great desire to see some one broken on the wheel, and, on offering one of his own men for that purpose, he could not understand why so reasonable a gratification should be denied him!

From Holland he went to England, where almost his entire time was employed in gaining further instruction in ship-building. On leaving England, King William made him a present of a beautiful yacht; Peter in return handed William a roll of brown paper, which on being opened disclosed a ruby worth fifty thousand dollars.

On his return to Holland, Peter sent to Russia a large number of English and Dutch naval officers, scientific men, and artisans, whom he had employed to introduce the arts and sciences of England and Holland into his own dominions.

From Holland he then proceeded to Vienna, to inspect the German emperor's army. While there he received news of a general insurrection of the strelitzes at Moscow. Leaving Vienna secretly, Peter arrived in Moscow with all speed, after an absence of seventeen months. General Gordon had already crushed the rebels, but the savage spirit of the czar could not thus be satisfied. The seven thousand strelitz prisoners taken by Gordon were hanged or beheaded after six weeks' diabolical torture, and their bodies were left unburied during the entire winter. The strelitzes were soon afterwards entirely disbanded and new troops on the German model were organized.

Peter then set about a multitude of reforms. The Russian year began upon the 1st of September. The czar ordained that thenceforward the year should commence as in other parts of Europe, on the 1st of January, and, although some people who were satisfied that God had created the world in September continued to observe the old division, the alteration took place in all the public offices and soon throughout the empire. The untiring czar next endeavored to introduce the Western style of dress among his people, who wore the long Tartar skirts and long beards. But here he met with more opposition. So many of the people clung to their ancient costume that a tax was finally laid upon their coats and beards, which proved quite a revenue

to the government. The old Tartar method of reckoning accounts with balls strung on wires was discontinued, and arithmetic was introduced into the exchequer of Russia. The Bible was translated into the Slavonic tongue, the office of patriarch was abolished, and the czar became virtual head of the Russian Greek Church.

Having effected these reforms, Peter formed a league with Denmark and Poland for the dismemberment of Sweden, then governed by the boy king Charles XII. Peter's first move against the Swedes at Narva proved a signal failure (1700). But he was not dispirited by this defeat. Hurrying back to Moscow, he melted down the bells of churches and monasteries for cannon, and drilled his soldiers with unceasing activity. Within a twelvemonth after the battle of Narva the czar's troops were so greatly improved in military discipline that they obtained a victory over one of the best generals of Charles XII. "At last," said Peter, "we can beat the Swedes when we are two to one; let us hope that ere long we shall be a match for them with equal numbers." While the Swedish king invaded Poland, Peter improved the opportunity to make conquests in the Swedish provinces on the Baltic Sea. Filling Lakes Peipus and Ladoga with his ships, he worked his way steadily northward and took Noteburg, a strong town on an island in Lake Ladoga. Having by this means secured possession of the Neva River, he proceeded to lay the foundations of his new capital, St. Petersburg, on a swampy island at the mouth of that river. About the same time the celebrated Mentchikof, who from being a pie-vender in the streets of Moscow had risen to be the chief favorite of the czar, was employed in founding a strong fortress on the island of Cronstadt, twenty-one miles from St. Petersburg.

In 1709, Charles XII. made his fatal expedition into Russia. Peter was well prepared by this time to meet him, and the disastrous campaign terminating at Pultowa proved that Charles

had underrated his rough and half-civilized foe. Peter's campaign with the Turks which followed was not so brilliant. Allowing himself to be allured to the Pruth River by the treacherous invitation of the hospodars of Moldavia, he found himself surrounded by a Turkish host of much greater numbers, and all seemed lost, when Catherine, Peter's wife, saved her husband and his troops by sending her jewels to the Turkish commander. Peace was proposed and a treaty was concluded. Peter marched safely away, but at the expense of all his fortresses on the Sea of Azov, which by the terms of the treaty fell into the hands of the Turks.

In 1716, Peter, accompanied by Catherine, made a second tour of Europe, visiting among other sovereigns Frederick William I. of Prussia, a kindred spirit. On returning to Russia Peter busied himself with developing the industrial resources of his country, building canals and factories, founding schools and hospitals. His last military exploit was an expedition into Persia, undertaken for the ostensible purpose of aiding the shah to suppress a rebellion, but in reality for the purpose of making conquests upon the shores of the Caspian Sea. The expedition, however, was ill-planned, and it achieved no conquest of importance.

Peter's great crime was his treatment of his son Alexis, the child of his first wife, Eudoxia. This unfortunate prince, having committed certain imprudent and foolish deeds, so incurred the displeasure of his father that Peter not only disinherited him but actually caused him to be tried and condemned to death. The day after sentence was pronounced the unhappy Alexis died mysteriously in prison, and there is every reason to believe that he was poisoned by his inhuman parent.

Peter died in 1725, and was succeeded by Catherine, whom he had crowned the previous year. His character has been well portrayed by Voltaire, who says, "He gave a polish to his people, and was himself a savage."

1727. Death of George I. Accession of George II.

George I. of Hanover succeeded Queen Anne in 1714, and once more England saw herself under the rule of a foreigner. George could not speak English when he came to the throne, and to his dying day never spoke or wrote the language fluently. The only way in which he could talk to his prime minister, Sir Robert Walpole, was in very bad Latin.

There were still in England and Scotland those who favored the Stuart cause. They were called Jacobites, from "Jacobus," the Latin name for James. The year after George's accession the son of James II., known as James the Pretender, or the Chevalier de St. George, made an effort to regain the throne from which his father had been driven. He went to Scotland, where many of the Highland chiefs espoused his cause, but the rebellion was so unsuccessful that the Pretender was very glad to escape again to France. For participation in this revolt the estates of many Scotch nobles were confiscated and some of the most prominent rebels suffered death.

The years 1719-20 are remarkable for the rise and fall of the great "South Sea Bubble," a speculation in which the most colossal fortunes were lost and won. The public credit was nearly ruined by this huge gambling transaction, but confidence was finally restored through the wise financial measures of Walpole. This great man, whose talents lay in financial politics, directed the government for twenty years, and England is greatly indebted to him for her advancement in commerce and manufacturing pursuits.

A great part of the history of these times is taken up with the disputes between the two political parties, the Whigs and the Tories. These parties agreed in wishing to have an hereditary monarchy and in maintaining the English Constitution, but the Tories, or Conservatives, seemed to think no change ought ever to be made in the Constitution, while the Whigs, or

Liberals, thought the Constitution ought to be adapted to the condition of the people, and grow as the nation grew. As the principles of the Whig party placed George I. on the throne, that party continued to govern England for many years.

In 1727, while travelling in Hanover, George was seized with apoplexy and died. He was succeeded by his son, George II.

George I. was a thorough German. He was neither clever nor attractive, nor exemplary in his private life. He was not fond of England, nor were the English fond of him.

During this reign inoculation for the smallpox was first tried upon condemned criminals, silk-throwing machines were introduced by Lombe, types were first cast, and Fahrenheit's thermometer was invented.

1727. Sir Isaac Newton.

Sir Isaac Newton, an illustrious English philosopher and mathematician, was born in Lincolnshire on Christmas-day, 1642. When he was twelve years old he was sent to a grammar-school, where he ranked low in his classes until a quarrel with the boy who stood above him roused his pride and caused him to apply himself with such resolution to his books that he stood at length at the head of the school. Instead of joining in the sports of his playmates, he spent much of his spare time in the construction of little mechanical contrivances, in which he evinced a marked facility of imitation and invention. He was very fond of drawing, and he covered the walls of his room with excellent charcoal sketches of men, birds, beasts, and mathematical figures. He made a sundial by arranging a set of pins upon the adjacent houses so as to mark the time of day by their shadows. The arrangement served as a sort of town clock, and was known as "Isaac's dial."

In 1661 Newton entered Trinity College at

Cambridge. He soon became a profound student of mathematics, making several important discoveries in this branch of science, among them the Binomial Theorem. In 1665 the plague forced him to return to his home at Woolsthorpe. While there he first conceived the identity of gravity with the force that holds the planets to their orbits, but failing to verify his conjecture he abandoned the subject. On the cessation of the plague he returned to Cambridge and continued his scientific studies. In the fall of 1668 he completed a reflecting telescope,—the first of the kind ever directed to the heavens. He then gave his attention to optics. He was the author of the "Emission Theory," that light consists of material particles emitted by luminous bodies in all directions. Hooke, another great philosopher, believed light to result from a series of undulations of an elastic medium pervading all bodies. This is called the Undulatory Theory, and is the one now generally accepted. Newton's optical researches and disputes occupied him for some years.

In 1679 his attention was recalled to the subject of gravitation, and after seven years' study and reflection his grand discovery of the laws of gravitation was given to the world in his book the "Principia." After the publication of this, his greatest work, Newton was content to extend and develop the principles of his philosophy without advancing into any new fields of science.

In 1705 he was knighted by Queen Anne on the occasion of a royal visit paid to the University at Cambridge. Newton passed his latter years in London. He never married. He was extremely generous with his money, and bestowed favors upon his relatives in particular with a lavish hand. When absorbed in study he would forget to eat, and his servants frequently found it necessary to remind him of his meals. He died in 1727, and was buried with every honor in Westminster Abbey.

Newton's religious opinions were not consid-

ered by the Church as strictly orthodox, but a certain writer says of him, "It has been justly regarded as a proud triumph of the Christian faith that the greatest philosopher of which any age can boast was a sincere and humble believer in the leading doctrines of our religion and lived conformably to its precepts."

1733. Settlement of Georgia.

In 1732 James Oglethorpe, a philanthropic member of the English Parliament, and twenty other trustees obtained from George III. a charter for the country between the Savannah and Altamaha Rivers. In honor of the king the region was named Georgia. Oglethorpe had spent considerable time visiting the prisons of England, where men were confined for debt and trifling offences. The wretched condition of these unfortunates induced him to found a colony in America as an asylum for this class of the poor and helpless.

In 1733 the first company of emigrants came over with Oglethorpe and founded the city of Savannah. The Indians were friendly and the colony prospered. In 1734 Oglethorpe went to England, and two years later returned to his colony with nearly three hundred emigrants, of whom one hundred and fifty were Highlanders well skilled in military affairs. John Wesley came with Oglethorpe to spread the gospel among the Indians, but he returned to England shortly, where he afterwards became distinguished as the founder of Methodism.

The Georgia colonists soon became involved in war with the Spaniards in Florida on account of the claims of the latter to the territory south of the Savannah River. Oglethorpe's shrewd generalship brought the war to a successful termination on behalf of the English in 1743. Soon afterwards Oglethorpe returned to England. He never visited the colony again.

Certain restrictive laws concerning trade and

labor, which the trustees had enforced, materially retarded the growth and prosperity of the colony. These laws were finally removed and things became more flourishing. In 1752 the charter of the trustees expired, and Georgia became a province of the crown.

1745. Battle of Fontenoy. "War of the Austrian Succession."

In 1724 Charles VI., Emperor of Germany, issued a law called the "Pragmatic Sanction," by which it was decreed that, if he left no sons, his eldest daughter might succeed him. This law was recognized by all the German princes and by most of the great powers of Europe. But, as one of the wise-headed generals said, "a hundred thousand men would have guaranteed it better than a hundred thousand treaties."

On the death of the emperor in 1740 the appearance of the young Maria Theresa upon the throne opened to the *chivalric* princes of Europe a glorious prospect for the dismemberment of her kingdom. Frederick II. of Prussia immediately invaded Silesia, a country he especially coveted. Charles Albert of Bavaria, assisted by Louis XV. of France, claimed all the Austrian states, which were soon overrun by French and Bavarian troops. Charles Albert was then elected emperor of Germany.

When her enemies had advanced within a few leagues of Vienna, the young queen fled to Presburg and flung herself upon the chivalry of the brave Hungarians. With her little son in her arms she sorrowfully appealed to them for protection, and the Hungarians, moved by her affecting address, flashed their sabres in the air and shouted, "We will die for our queen, Maria Theresa!" The French and Bavarians were soon driven out of Austrian territory, and things began to look brighter for the young empress.

Meanwhile, England had espoused her cause, and had sent an army into the Netherlands to operate against the French. The chief battle

of the war between the French and English was fought in Belgium, at Fontenoy, in 1745. The English were commanded by the son of George II., the Duke of Cumberland, and the French by Marshal Saxe. The victory resulted in favor of the French. This was the first and last pitched battle of any magnitude which the French ever gained over the English.

In the same year (1745) Charles VII. of Germany died, and the husband of Maria Theresa was raised to the imperial throne as Francis I.

The war dragged on until 1748, when the peace of Aix-la-Chapelle left Maria Theresa in possession of all her dominions except Silesia, which Frederick of Prussia retained.

This European war, placing France and England as usual on opposite sides in the quarrel, led to war in the American colonies, where it was known as King George's War. All these wars for supremacy in the New World between England and France brought devastation to many parts of the country, while nothing resulted but a mutual restoration of conquests.

1746. Battle of Culloden.

Several unsuccessful attempts to regain the throne of his father were made by James the Pretender during the reign of George I. When Charles Edward, the son of the Pretender, grew up he determined to try his fortunes in the same direction. Neither of these two princes were great or good men, worthy to occupy the throne, but they had adherents in Great Britain, especially among the Scots, who still had a warm feeling towards the Stuart family.

In 1745 the young Pretender, encouraged by the French, came over to Scotland to make an effort in his father's cause and his own. Many of the Highlanders joined him, and the city of Edinburgh opened its gates to the "bonnie Prince Charlie," as he was called in the Jacobite songs. Meanwhile, English troops advanced to meet him, but Charles, surprising them in the

dawn of the morning, gained a signal victory and captured all the royal artillery and stores. This was called the battle of Prestonpans.

Delighted with his success, the Pretender then marched into England, hoping that the English would join him in great numbers. But he was doomed to disappointment. The English were safe and prosperous under the government of George II., and they had no desire to risk their lives and fortunes by rebelling. When Charles had advanced as far as Derby, bickerings and disunion among the Highland chiefs forced him to turn back, though sorely against his own will. An English army under the Duke of Cumberland followed after and overtook the Scots at Culloden Moor, near Inverness. There a battle was fought, resulting in the complete defeat of the Scots (1746). Out of Charles's army of five thousand men, one thousand lay dead upon the field. This was the last battle fought upon the soil of Great Britain and the last serious attempt of the Stuarts to regain the throne. Charles Edward made his escape to the mountains. For five months he wandered about, meeting with as wonderful adventures as his great-uncle, Charles II., did. A reward of thirty thousand pounds was offered for his head, but the Scots would not betray him. At last he reached France in safety. He spent his latter days in Rome, where he fell into the most degrading and disgraceful habits, dying at last a broken-down drunkard (1788).

The Jacobites continued to drink the health of the "king over the water" for some years, but they did nothing more for him, and the sentimental attachment to the house of Stuart gradually died out and was forgotten.

1752. Benjamin Franklin.

Benjamin Franklin, an American philosopher and statesman, was born in Boston, Massachusetts, in 1706. His father, a manufacturer of

soap and candles, placed Benjamin, at the age of ten, in his shops to cut wicks and fill candle-moulds. This kind of work soon became distasteful to the active and enterprising boy, who longed to go to sea; but his father forbade all thought of such a life, and bound him to his brother James to learn the art of printing. Always fond of reading and now having access to books, Franklin often sat up the great part of the night engaged in study. He soon began to write articles for a journal published by his brother James. In a little while James grew jealous of the talent which the young author evinced, and began to treat him very harshly.

Highly aggrieved at his brother's severity, young Franklin ran away from home, and went to New York to seek his fortune. But he met with no encouragement there, so he continued his flight to Philadelphia, reaching that city with just one dollar in his pocket. There were at that time two printing-offices in Philadelphia. In one of these Franklin found employment. He soon attracted the attention of Sir William Keith, governor of the province, who offered to set Franklin up in business and give him the public printing. Induced by these promises Franklin went to London to purchase types and material, Keith promising to forward the necessary funds. But on arriving in London Franklin found that he had been grossly deceived, the money was not forthcoming, and he was almost penniless in a foreign country. But he was an expert and efficient workman, and he soon found employment as a printer. At the end of eighteen months he returned to Philadelphia with a merchant who had become interested in him. A mercantile career was just opening to Franklin when his patron suddenly died, and he was again thrown upon his own resources.

He betook himself to his old trade, and, getting an office of his own, established a newspaper. Prosperity dawned upon him. His great intelligence and industry, his ingenuity in devising improved schemes of economy and edu-

cation, won for him the respect and admiration of the community. He founded the first circulating library in America. He was the author of "Poor Richard's Almanac," which he continued to publish for many years.

While on a visit to Boston in 1746 he witnessed some imperfect experiments in electricity, in which he became deeply interested. Having by this time means sufficient to enable him to withdraw from business, he purchased philosophical apparatus and began investigations in electricity. In 1749 he began to broach his theory of the identity of lightning with electricity. He believed that thunder and lightning were nothing more than the report and spark of an electric discharge from clouds filled with electricity. To verify this conviction he made a silken kite, and fastened to the top of the perpendicular stick a piece of sharpened iron wire. The string of the kite was hemp, except the part to be held in the hand, which he made of silk. At the termination of the hempen string a common key was fastened. Taking with him this philosophical apparatus and a Leyden jar, and accompanied by his son, Franklin stole out one day on the approach of a thunder-storm to a common not far from home, and, seeking the shelter of a cow-shed, began flying his kite in the rain. A thunder-cloud passed,—no sign of electricity appeared. Franklin was disappointed,—chagrined. Another black cloud approached. Suddenly the fibres of the hemp string began to rise as a boy's hair rises when he stands on an insulating stool. Franklin applied his knuckle to the key, and to his great joy received a shock and drew from the key an unmistakable spark. The experiment was a perfect success. The spark was a miniature flash of lightning,—the flash of an electric discharge,—and the identity of lightning with electricity was proven beyond the shadow of a doubt. Filling his jar with the electric fluid, Franklin went home the happiest philosopher in Christendom. His theory was subsequently verified by eminent French philos-

ophers, and everywhere Franklin's name was spoken with admiration. The invention of the lightning-rod was the result of this discovery.

1752. Change of the Calendar.

The calendar is a method of numbering and arranging days, weeks, months, and years. The *day* is a natural division of time. The *week* is not, but it has been used in Eastern nations from time immemorial. The Greeks and Romans originally had no weeks. The length of the *month* was suggested by the moon, which completes her changes in about thirty days. The solar *year* is a natural period of time, being the time in which the earth completes the revolution around the sun.

In the early days of Rome the civil year was regulated so imperfectly that in the time of Julius Cæsar the spring occurred in what the calendar called summer. Cæsar, with the help of Sosigenes, an Alexandrian astronomer, reformed the calendar. He readjusted the months to their proper seasons, made the year 708 A.U.C.* four hundred and forty-five days long, extending from October 13 to the 31st of the second ensuing December. At the termination of this year, called "the year of confusion," the Julian year began January 1, 46 B.C.

The Julian Calendar was gradually adopted and used throughout Europe until 1582. It was then ascertained that the Julian year of three hundred and sixty-five days and six hours was too long by nearly eleven minutes, an error which had by that time amounted to ten days. Accordingly, Pope Gregory XIII. corrected the error in 1582, calling the 5th of October the 15th.

The change was not made in England until 1752, when the error amounted to eleven days.

* Anno urbis conditæ,—i.e., in the year of the founding of the city (of Rome).

By act of Parliament eleven days were struck out of the month of September by calling the 3d the 14th, and thus the time-keeping of the nation was set right. The change met with a good deal of ignorant opposition in England, one of the election rallying-cries being, "Give us back our eleven days!"

All the Christian nations of Europe except Russia have adopted the "new style."

1757. Battle of Plassey. (Founding of the British East India Empire.)

During the latter part of Elizabeth's reign a company of London merchants, called the East India Company, began to trade in India. They made little settlements on the coast, where they traded and grew rich. This company, at first simply commercial, gradually obtained political influence, Bombay, Madras, and Calcutta becoming the great centres of their power. The French, Dutch, and Portuguese also made settlements in India. Of these the French were most important.

For many centuries the native government had been under the supreme control of Mohammedan emperors called Moguls, to whom the petty Hindoo princes paid tribute for their territories. But the Moguls were sunk in luxury and debauchery, and the native princes had long since become monarchs of their own provinces. The efforts of both French and English agents to obtain the alliance of these princes led to almost perpetual war on a small scale, in which the natives were the only real losers. Things were in this state when, about the middle of the eighteenth century, the French governor of Pondicherry, the central station of the French possessions, devised the scheme of uprooting the British settlements and conquering all India. Madras was seized, and the English became greatly alarmed.

There was at this time in the service of the

British East India Company a clerk by the name of Clive. Leaving the civil service of the company, Clive joined the army in 1746, and showing great courage he was put in command of a small body of troops. With this handful of soldiers he drove the French from the province of Arcot, and soon obtained control of all South-eastern Hindostan. But his greatest achievement was the conquest of the rich province of Bengal.

The successes of the English excited the jealousy of Surajah Dowla, Nabob of Bengal, and in the summer of 1756 he attacked Fort William at Calcutta. The English garrison was in no condition to sustain a siege, and accordingly surrendered. The nabob, notwithstanding his assurances of protection and safety, shut up his one hundred and forty-six prisoners in a small room—twenty feet by fourteen—during the hot night of an Indian summer. When morning came only twenty-three were found alive,—the rest had perished from the tortures of suffocation and thirst. Surajah Dowla followed up this atrocity by totally destroying the factories along the river, thus inflicting by far the heaviest blow which the English had sustained since their first establishment in the country.

On hearing of this great calamity Clive hastened to Bengal to punish the nabob. His army consisted of about nine hundred English and fifteen hundred native troops. Surajah Dowla had an army of nearly sixty thousand. The odds were tremendous. Clive called a council of war, and the majority decided against fighting. But the brave commander was not satisfied. After spending nearly an hour in deep thought he announced his decision to risk a battle. The next morning his little army crossed the river which separated them from their foes, and the discipline and courage of the English won the day. This victory, called the battle of Plassey, gave the English the large and fertile province of Bengal and laid the foundation of the British East India Empire.

1759. Surrender of Quebec.

The boundaries between the English and the French possessions in America were for many years a subject of dispute. The difficulties culminated in 1753 in a war between the French and English colonists, known as the French and Indian War, because the former were largely aided by Indian allies. The successes of the English during the first years of the war led Pitt, the English prime minister, to conceive the magnificent scheme of conquering all Canada and destroying completely the French dominion in America. Although the English claimed the entire territory from Newfoundland to Florida and from the Atlantic to the Pacific, the French held not only Canada but all the interior portion of the country along the Mississippi River. The Mississippi River was too far away to be of much importance, but the aggressive Englishmen looked with longing eyes towards the extensive regions of the St. Lawrence.

In 1759 a competent force under General Wolfe was sent to undertake the siege of Quebec. Quebec was a very strong place, the most important part being within fortified walls upon the top and sides of a high peninsula. Back of the city was a level plateau, three hundred feet above the water, called the Plains of Abraham. The first attack upon the French intrenchments was unsuccessful. Wolfe then decided to ascend the St. Lawrence in the night, scale the promontory to the Plains of Abraham, and assail the town where the French were not expecting an attack and where Wolfe hoped it was poorly defended. Landing about midnight on the 12th of September a mile and a half above the city, the English with great difficulty clambered up the rocks, and at last gained the summit. The Canadian guard was dispersed, and in the dawn of the morning Wolfe marshalled his army for battle on the Plains of Abraham. The French commander, Montcalm, heard the news with amazement, but, perceiving the peril of the city,

he marched his entire army from the encampment below the city and confronted the English. A fierce battle ensued. Montcalm's army consisted in great part of inexperienced Canadians, and, when the English made a final charge with the bayonet, the French army gave way and fled. Both Wolfe and Montcalm were mortally wounded. The former, on hearing the English shouts of victory, cried, "Now I die happy;" the latter gasped, "I am glad I shall not live to see the surrender of Quebec." A monument was afterwards erected upon the scene of the battle by the English and generously inscribed with the names of both these heroes.

Five days after the battle Quebec surrendered and the English took possession. The following year Montreal capitulated, and by the terms of surrender the whole of Canada fell into the hands of the English.

1760. Death of George II. Accession of George III.

George II. succeeded his father, George I., in 1727, at the age of forty-four years. He had long entertained a dislike towards his father's prime minister, but through the influence of his wife, the queen, Caroline of Anspach, a woman of great sense and virtue, Walpole and the Whigs remained in power. It is probable that Walpole desired the good of the country, but he degraded its character by bribing men right and left, sometimes with the public money, sometimes with offices and appointments. By means of this unscrupulous corruption he retained his influence in the House of Commons. It was sad indeed that the high spirit of the English gentlemen had sunk so low that even members of Parliament would sell their votes. Walpole's administration at last became unpopular, and in 1741 he resigned his office.

The reign of George II. is mostly occupied with wars upon the Continent, in which the

English engaged without any special reason or necessity. But the king was a good soldier and fond of war. The first of these wars was called the "War of the Austrian Succession." It was very unpopular in England, because the people thought the king took part in it not for the good of England, but for the good of Hanover, of which they were jealous. The most important of these wars were those in which England became involved with France on account of boundary disputes between the colonies of the two nations in America and India. While these wars were in progress William Pitt, formerly a member of Parliament, became prime minister (1757). Pitt was a man of wonderful genius, marvellously eloquent, and a complete master of sarcasm. He scorned bribery and corruption, and his administration was pure and honorable. Under Pitt's able direction the war in America, which had been very disastrous to the English arms, was conducted with vigor and ability, and it resulted in the conquest of Canada. The campaign in India also terminated gloriously, giving the English the large province of Bengal.

In 1760 the king died suddenly of heart-disease. George II. was very much like his father, thoroughly German in his temper and attachments. He spent much of his time in Hanover. On the occasion of a lengthened stay in that country, his enemies signified their displeasure by affixing to the gate of St. James's Palace a placard bearing the inscription, "Lost or strayed out of this house, a man who has left a wife and six children on the parish. Whoever will give any tidings of him, so he may be got again, shall receive four shillings and sixpence reward; no one judging him to deserve a *crown*" (five shillings).

George II. saw no good in "boetry and bainting," and art and literature were left to flourish as best they could. The most distinguished men in these departments of learning so despised by the king were Gray, the poet,

Hume, the historian, Richardson and Fielding, novelists, and Hogarth, the great painter and engraver.

Whatever were the errors of George II., his reign was one of the most prosperous periods England had ever known. His eldest son being dead, George II. was succeeded by his grandson, George III.

1765. The Stamp Act.

At the close of the French and Indian War the American colonies looked forward to long years of prosperity and repose. But the serenity of the political sky soon disappeared. The war had exhausted the British treasury, and the ministry now proposed to lessen the burdens and increase the revenue of the mother-country by taxing her colonies. To this the Americans objected, on the ground that they had no representatives in Parliament who might have a voice in laying the tax. Notwithstanding their remonstrances Parliament passed in 1765 the famous Stamp Act, which required that stamps, to be furnished by the British government, should be put upon all legal documents as well as upon newspapers and other printed matter. The money which the colonists were to pay for the stamps would, of course, go into the British treasury.

The Legislature of Virginia was in session when the news of this Parliamentary measure arrived. Although there was danger in opposing it, Patrick Henry, the youngest member of the House, could not restrain his indignation, and he offered a series of resolutions that the colonists were not bound to yield obedience to any law imposing taxation on them, and that whoever said the contrary was an enemy to his country. A violent debate ensued, but Henry's eloquence prevailed. "Cæsar had his Brutus," cried the orator, "Charles I. had his Cromwell, and George III.—" "Treason!" shouted the Speaker. "Treason! Treason!" exclaimed the

royalists, springing to their feet. "And George III.," repeated Henry with unfaltering accent, "may profit by their example. If that be treason, make the most of it."

The indignation at the passage of the Stamp Act was not confined to Virginia, but everywhere throughout the thirteen colonies the people raised their voices against the unjust measure. In October delegates from nine of the colonies met in New York and drew up a declaration of their rights and grievances and forwarded a petition embodying their views to the king.

At length the day on which the Stamp Act was to take effect—the 1st of November—arrived. The courts were closed, bells were tolled, and the day was observed with fasting and prayer. Those who were appointed to sell the stamps were burned in effigy and dare not proceed with their business. Many of the stamps were concealed or destroyed, and the merchants of New York, Philadelphia, and Boston resolved to purchase no more goods of Great Britain until the odious act was repealed. The spirit of opposition was most determined, and the British government, finding that the Stamp Act could be carried into effect only by force of arms, repealed it the following year.

1774. Death of Louis XV. Accession of Louis XVI.

Louis XV. was but five years old when he succeeded to the throne of France in 1715. The Duke of Orleans, nephew of Louis XIV., held the regency for eight years. This dissolute prince was controlled by his prime minister, the Abbé Dubois, an utterly unprincipled man, whose gods were avarice, debauchery, and ambition. These two wicked men reduced the country to the verge of bankruptcy by their extravagance. The chief event of their administration was the rise and fall of the Mississippi scheme. This was a plan to issue paper money

upon the security of some imaginary gold and silver mines in Louisiana. It was proposed by John Law, a Scotch adventurer. Orleans eagerly grasped the delusion. The people went mad with speculation. Shares went up to three hundred per cent.; but the ships laden with gold and silver from Louisiana never sailed into port, a crash came at last, and thousands were involved in ruin.

In 1723 Orleans and Dubois died within a few months of each other. Three years later Cardinal Fleury, who had been the king's preceptor, became prime minister, and for seventeen years he continued to direct the government. His administration was the best part of an otherwise shameful reign. When Fleury died France went rapidly downward in her career of ruin. The court was plunged into the most costly debauchery by the king's depraved favorites, of whom Madame de Pompadour was the most notorious. Everywhere morality was at a frightfully low ebb. A spirit of scepticism engendered by the writings of Voltaire prevailed, and men lost faith in God and in each other. It was the most dismal period in the history of France.

The "War of the Austrian Succession," in which France took part, left her weaker than before, while the "Seven Years' War" which followed stripped her of some of her most valuable colonial possessions.

Louis XV. died in 1774, despised by his people for his immoralities and for his cold indifference to the interests of his country. "It will last my time," he had said with selfish levity when warned of the decay of his kingdom.

He was succeeded by his grandson, Louis XVI., a gentle prince, just twenty years of age. Dimly conscious of the perils by which they were surrounded, the young king and his beautiful wife, Marie Antoinette, fell upon their knees when told of their accession to the throne, crying, "O God, protect us, direct us; we are too young to govern."

1774. The First Continental Congress.

The repeal of the Stamp Act proved to be but a truce in the war upon American freedom. While Pitt was absent from Parliament through sickness, the enemies of the colonies succeeded in passing a bill taxing all tea, glass, paper, and painters' colors imported into the colonies. This new measure of oppression caused general excitement, and when the custom officers arrived at Boston they were regarded with as much contempt and aversion as the tax-gatherers in the time of our Saviour. The governor of Massachusetts, alarmed by the hostile demonstrations of the people, ordered General Gage to Boston with troops to overawe the inhabitants. A collision soon took place between the people and the soldiers, resulting in the death of three of the citizens. This affair greatly exasperated the people, and they compelled Gage to remove his troops from the city.

Through the influence of the friends of the colonies in Parliament, the obnoxious duties were all revoked except that upon tea. But the Americans regarded the imposition of a duty upon one article as much a violation of their rights as a duty upon ten, and they determined to buy no tea from Great Britain so long as the duty remained. Despite their warning several large ships laden with tea came over to the colonies. At New York and Philadelphia they were not allowed to land. At Charleston the tea was landed but was placed in damp cellars, where it soon spoiled. At Boston a party of men disguised as Indians boarded the tea ships one moonlight night and pitched three hundred and forty chests of tea into the water. By way of retaliation Parliament passed the Boston Port Bill, which closed the port against all commercial transactions, and by cutting off all water communication with the place seriously crippled her trade and industry. The liveliest sympathy was evinced all over the country for the blockaded people of Boston, and money and pro-

visions were sent to them in response to their appeal for help.

In September, 1774, deputies from every colony but Georgia met in a general congress at Philadelphia to consult about the course to be pursued in their troubles with the mother-country. Adams, Washington, Patrick Henry, all the able men of the colonies, were present. A Declaration of Rights was drawn up, a petition was addressed to the king for a redress of their grievances, and an appeal was made to the people of Great Britain. The entire assembly was of one mind,—never to submit to tyranny; and they adjourned to meet again in May of the following year, to take more aggressive steps should the king refuse to listen to their final appeal.

1775. The Battle of Lexington.

Notwithstanding the eloquent appeals of Pitt and other champions of American freedom in the British Parliament, the petition of the colonies was passed by unheeded, and during the summer and autumn of 1774 the colonies began to prepare for the war which seemed inevitable. "I know not what course others may pursue, but as for me, give me liberty or give me death!" said Patrick Henry in the Virginia House of Burgesses, and his thrilling words found an echo in every patriotic heart.

Men were regularly drilled in military tactics, ammunition was hastily gathered, and everywhere was heard the sound of fife and drum. General Gage, who had recently been appointed governor of Massachusetts, fortified Boston Neck and seized the powder-magazine at Cambridge. He felt confident that he could repress the insurrection in Massachusetts with the three thousand soldiers under his command. On the night of the 18th of April, 1775, he secretly despatched eight hundred men to Concord to destroy some stores and ammunition which he learned the patriots had collected there. But

the patriots suspected the movement, and when the troops set out Paul Revere galloped off to Concord to arouse the inhabitants. Soon church-bells, muskets, and cannon spread the alarm all over the country, and when at dawn of the 19th of April the advance guard reached Lexington, they found a small company of determined men drawn up to meet them. "Disperse, you rebels!" shouted Major Pitcairn, the officer in charge. But the brave little band held their ground, and Pitcairn ordered his men to fire. A few random shots were returned, and when the smoke cleared away eight Americans were dead upon the bloody grass, several were wounded, and the remainder were dispersed. So ended the first battle of the Revolution.

The British pressed forward to Concord and destroyed what stores they could find. The country was now thoroughly aroused, and minute-men, as the Massachusetts militia were called, gathered by scores. The British, alarmed at the storm they had raised, concluded to beat a retreat. All the way back a deadly and unrelenting fire was poured upon them from behind trees, sheds, and fences, and they would undoubtedly have been captured in a body had not Lord Percy arrived with reinforcements. Even then it was with the greatest difficulty that they made their way back, for the country swarmed with "rebels."

The British loss on this eventful day was nearly three hundred, while the Americans lost about one-third that number.

The news of the bloodshed of American citizens flew like wildfire over the country, and preparations for war went on with unceasing activity.

1776. The Declaration of Independence.

The battles of Lexington and Concord ended all hope of a peaceable adjustment of difficulties between Great Britain and her American colonies. The second Continental Congress, which

met in Philadelphia early in 1775, sent a final petition to the king, but at the same time they said, firmly, "We have counted the cost of this contest, and we find nothing so dreadful as voluntary slavery." Measures were taken for the organization of an army, of which George Washington, a member of Congress, was appointed commander-in-chief.

Instead of any redress of grievances, Generals Howe and Burgoyne and Sir Henry Clinton were sent over from England with fresh troops to subdue the rebellion. The first battle of importance was fought at Bunker Hill in June, 1775, and, although a defeat for the Americans, it taught their enemies that these "impudent rebels" were not to be despised.

Washington was anxious to drive the British out of Boston, but his army was so wretchedly equipped that it was not until the spring of 1776 that he felt strong enough to make the attempt. On the night of March 4 he caused intrenchments to be thrown up on Dorchester Heights, overlooking the city and harbor, and in the morning the British were astonished to see a formidable-looking fortress looming up above them through the fog. Finding himself unable to dislodge the Americans, General Howe agreed to evacuate the city, and on the 17th of March the British troops sailed for Halifax, to the great joy of the inhabitants of Boston.

In the mean time the grand idea of an independent nation had been slowly forming in the public mind, and in June Richard Henry Lee offered the resolution in Congress, then in session at Philadelphia, that "These united colonies are, and of right ought to be, free and independent states." A committee, consisting of Thomas Jefferson, John Adams, Benjamin Franklin, Roger Sherman, and Robert R. Livingston was appointed to prepare a formal declaration of independence. After long and exciting debate Lee's resolution was passed on the 2d of July. The Declaration was discussed with great spirit on the 3d and the morning of the

4th, and at two o'clock on the afternoon of the 4th it was adopted by a unanimous vote.

The streets of Philadelphia were crowded with excited citizens all this day, anxious to learn the decision of Congress. At last the bell of the State House rang out the note of freedom, and the multitudes answered with joyous shouts. All over the country the Declaration of Independence was received with enthusiasm and joy. Its leading principles are, "That all men are created equal; that governments are instituted for the welfare of the people; that the people have a right to alter their government; that the government of George III. had become destructive of liberty; that the king's tyranny over his American subjects was no longer endurable; and that therefore the United States are, and of right ought to be, free and independent."

1780. The Treason of Benedict Arnold.

The one event that occupies a place of painful prominence in the history of the American Revolution is the treason of Benedict Arnold. Arnold was an officer in the American army, and during the early part of the war he behaved with great gallantry and bravery. After the battle of Saratoga, in which he was wounded, he was appointed at his own request to the command in Philadelphia. There he began a style of extravagant living which involved him heavily in debt, and to satisfy his creditors he appropriated the public funds to his own use. His overbearing manner and sordid disposition had already made him very unpopular, and when his dishonesty became known charges were brought against him, and he was court-martialed and sentenced to be reprimanded by General Washington. Washington performed this unpleasant duty with as much leniency as possible, but Arnold felt his disgrace keenly and he determined to be revenged.

West Point was at that time the most impor-

tant post held by the Americans and their main depot of supplies. Arnold opened a treasonable correspondence with Sir Henry Clinton in New York and offered to betray West Point into the hands of the British. On the plea that his wound prevented him from going into active service, and with many patriotic expressions, he then requested to be transferred to the command of West Point. His wishes being gratified, he set to work to make final arrangements for the betrayal of his trust. For several months he carried on a correspondence with Major André, Clinton's aide-de-camp, and at length it became necessary to hold a personal interview to arrange the final details of the surrender. André accordingly sailed up the Hudson in the British ship "Vulture," and landed about six miles below West Point, where Arnold awaited his coming. While the two were in close conference a small American battery on the river-bank opened fire upon the "Vulture" and compelled her to drop down-stream. André was thus forced to return to New York by land. In citizen's dress, and armed with a pass from General Arnold, André set out upon his homeward journey. But near Tarrytown he met three American soldiers, who demanded where he was going. André, not suspecting the presence of Americans so near the British lines, told them boldly that he was a British officer out on important business, whereupon the men began to search him, and, finding in his stockings papers in the handwriting of Arnold, they concluded that he must be a spy, and hurried him off to the nearest American station, heedless of the offer of unlimited sums of money they should receive for his release.

The commander of the American post whither André was taken stupidly sent Arnold news of the arrest. This gave Arnold a chance to escape. Telling his terrified wife of his peril, he mounted a horse, made his way in haste to the river, and was rowed out to the "Vulture" before any effort to capture him could be made.

André was tried, condemned, and hanged as a spy. He was a talented young officer, and his sad fate awakened universal commiseration.

Arnold received as the reward of his base treachery fifty thousand dollars and a brigadier-general's commission in the British army. But he was regarded with the greatest contempt by his new associates. It is said that he asked a British officer one day, "How will the rebels treat me, do you think, should I fall into their hands?" and the officer replied, "Pardon my frankness; but they will probably cut off the leg that was wounded in storming our lines at Saratoga and bury it with the honors of war; having no respect for the rest of your body, they will undoubtedly hang it."

The blighting curse of his treason followed Arnold to his death. Wherever he went in foreign lands he was regarded with horror and aversion, and he finally died in London "unwept, unhonored, and unsung."

1781. Surrender of Cornwallis at Yorktown. (End of American Revolution.)

The American colonists made good their Declaration of Independence, but it took seven years' hard fighting to accomplish the end they sought.

At an early stage of the war the British government, thinking to put a speedy termination to the rebellion, hired an army of German mercenaries to fight in connection with the British troops against the Americans. Great efforts were also made to stir up the Indians against the colonists. Pitt denounced this mode of warfare openly in the British Parliament. "If I were an American," said he, "as I am an Englishman, while a foreign troop was landed in my country, I never would lay down my arms,—never, *never*, NEVER!"

France came to the aid of the struggling colonies, and sent both men and money. The most distinguished of the French officers was the

Marquis de La Fayette, a young man not twenty-one years of age when he received his commission in the American army. Other foreigners of distinction who fought for American freedom were Kosciusko and Pulaski, natives of Poland, and Baron Steuben, a Prussian, who had been an officer in the army of Frederick the Great.

After the British had evacuated Boston, Washington went to New York and built fortifications for its defence, fearing that in view of its commercial importance an attempt would be made by the British to obtain possession of the city. His surmise proved only too true, for in a short time the British fleet under Lord Howe made its appearance in New York Bay. Reinforcements from England arrived shortly after, commanded by Admiral Howe, and a battle was fought upon Long Island, the result of which was that Washington was forced to retire from New York and Long Island. Retreating southward through New Jersey, closely followed by the pursuing British, the Americans made good their escape by crossing the Delaware into Pennsylvania, and not leaving a boat behind them for a distance of seventy miles along the river. When the British arrived at Trenton they had no means of crossing the Delaware, so, leaving a force of Hessians to guard Trenton, they were content to return to New York.

Washington's army was in a pitiable condition. Many of the soldiers had no shoes, and their footsteps on the frozen ground, for it was now the winter season, were traced in blood during their disastrous retreat from Long Island. One of the British officers in New Jersey wrote to a friend that Washington's army was not to be feared, for they were almost naked and were dying of cold and want of food. Cornwallis, one of the chief commanders in New York, considered that the war was about over, and actually sent his baggage on board a ship to return home. In the mean time Washington had determined to recross the Delaware and

attack the Hessians at Trenton. On Christmas night (1776) the ragged but stout-hearted American army embarked under cover of the darkness and a storm of snow and sleet, and made their way with great difficulty through the grinding ice to the opposite shore. The Hessians were completely taken by surprise, and after a short resistance they were forced to surrender. The capture of nearly one thousand men and a quantity of valuable ordnance revived the drooping spirits of the American army and infused new vigor into the measures of Congress for the prosecution of the war. Washington followed up his victory at Trenton by an attack upon the British at Princeton, but, although again victorious, the fatigued condition of his troops prevented him from following up his advantage, and he soon retired to winter quarters.

The great event of the campaign of 1777 was the expedition of General Burgoyne from Canada. It was the intention of this British general to march down the valley of the Hudson, leaving garrisons at all important posts, and join Lord Howe at New York, thus cutting off all communication between New England and the other States. But the expedition proved an utter failure, and Burgoyne finally found himself hemmed in by an American army under General Gates at Saratoga. After waiting in vain for reinforcements from New York, Burgoyne surrendered his entire army of over six thousand men, besides all his artillery and military stores. This disaster to the British arms ended the war in the North. In the mean time Generals Howe and Washington were engaged in a struggle for the possession of Philadelphia, but Washington was defeated at the Brandywine, and the British took up their abode in Philadelphia. Not content to let his enemies rest quietly in their snug quarters, Washington made an attack upon their encampment at Germantown, but after a brisk engagement a dense fog arose, the various divisions of the army fell into confusion, and he gave the order to retreat.

Early in December the American army retired into winter quarters at Valley Forge. The soldiers were destitute of proper food and clothing, and their sufferings were very great. Every effort was made by the British to induce the sufferers to desert and join the British army, but with very little success, for Washington's sublime faith and patience inspired his men to a brave endurance of their sufferings.

At the opening of the campaign of 1778 General Howe was recalled and Sir Henry Clinton was appointed to supersede him. The British now evacuated Philadelphia and returned to New York. Washington gave pursuit, and at Monmouth a battle occurred which resulted victoriously for the Americans, although at one time it was very nearly turned into a defeat through the inefficiency of one of Washington's subordinate officers.

The British soon afterwards transferred the chief seat of war to the Southern States. Charleston, South Carolina, was taken in May, 1780, by an expedition under Sir Henry Clinton. After reducing South Carolina to subjection, Clinton returned to New York, leaving Lord Cornwallis in command. Cornwallis now determined upon what proved the decisive campaign of the war. Pushing forward through North Carolina he entered Virginia, intending to make a junction with Clinton somewhere along the Chesapeake Bay. His march northward was opposed by irregularly organized bands of patriots, who fell upon his army at every opportunity. The chief leaders of these bands were the famous Marion, Sumter, and Pickens, the story of whose exploits forms one of the most interesting chapters in the entire history of the war.

When Cornwallis reached Virginia he found a British army already there, ravaging the country and destroying both public and private property. General La Fayette had been sent by Washington to put an end to these depredations if possible, but Cornwallis co-operating

with the other British forces was too strong for the Americans to attack. Sir Henry Clinton, fearing an attack from Washington, was still in New York. Leaving Clinton under this impression, Washington secretly hurried his army southward to fall upon Cornwallis, who had in the mean time intrenched himself at Yorktown. But Cornwallis found too late that he had shut himself up in a trap. A French fleet under Count de Grasse blockaded him by water, and Washington invested the place by land. On the 9th of October the allied armies commenced a heavy cannonade upon the British works. Night and day the bombardment continued until the works were nearly all demolished. The British made an effort to escape by night, but it was unsuccessful. No aid came from Clinton, and at last, seeing that further resistance was useless, Cornwallis proposed to surrender. Terms of capitulation were agreed upon, and on the 19th of October, 1781, more than eight thousand prisoners laid down their arms. Cornwallis, unable to endure the mortification, sent his sword by one of his subordinate officers. A few days after the surrender Clinton arrived off the Chesapeake with the promised reinforcements, but on learning the state of affairs he returned crestfallen to New York.

The news of the surrender of Cornwallis was received with unbounded joy throughout the colonies. In England the demand for peace became universal, for all hope of subduing the colonies was now at an end.

1783. Independence of the United States.

The surrender of Cornwallis at Yorktown practically ended the Revolutionary War. Although George III. and some of his ministers were still in favor of continuing the war, the people of England, upon whom the expenses of the war fell, were loud in their demand for

peace. The House of Commons voted that whoever advised the king to continue the war was an enemy to the country.

Negotiations for peace were accordingly opened at Paris in 1782. To this conference the Americans sent Benjamin Franklin, John Adams, John Jay, and Henry Laurens. A definitive treaty was finally adjusted in September, 1783. By its terms England acknowledged the independence of the United States; allowed ample boundaries, extending northward to the Great Lakes and westward to the Mississippi River; and gave unlimited right to fish on the Banks of Newfoundland. Treaties were signed at the same time between England, France, Spain, Holland, and the United States, and the new republic took its place among the nations of the earth.

1786. Frederick the Great.

Prussia receives its name from the Porussi, a Slavonic race that in the Middle Ages settled on the lands bordering on the southern shore of the Baltic Sea. The Porussi were partly conquered by Poland in the eleventh century. In the seventeenth century Prussia was united with the duchy of Brandenburg, a territory farther west, thus forming the nucleus of the present kingdom of Prussia. The electorate of Brandenburg was recognized as a kingdom in 1701, and the elector took the title of Frederick I. His successor, Frederick William I., was the father of Frederick the Great.

Frederick the Great was born in 1712. Few princes ever had a more unfortunate or unhappy boyhood. His father was a ferocious tyrant, who cared for nothing but his famous army of giants. When he went out for a walk everybody fled before him as from a tiger broken loose from a menagerie. If he met a lady on the streets he would not hesitate to give her a kick and bid her go home to her "brats." If he saw a clergyman looking at his soldiers he

would give him a sound caning and tell him to betake himself to prayer and study. But it was in his own palace that he was most unreasonable and ferocious. The young Frederick was the especial object of his brutal father's aversion. He was kicked around, sometimes fed on bread and water, and again forced to swallow food so nauseous that he could not retain it on his stomach. At last, weary of his cruel treatment, the unhappy prince tried to run away, but he was brought back and condemned to death as a deserter by his inhuman parent. His life was spared only through the intervention of neighboring sovereigns. He was, however, kept in prison a long time, but his jailers treated him with a kindness his father had never shown. He had wholesome food to eat, and could play his beloved flute without danger of having it broken over his head.

In 1733, to please his father, Frederick married a German princess for whom he had no love. Soon afterwards the king gave him the castle of Rheinsburg. There Frederick passed a more comfortable life. His early education had been gained from French refugees, who awakened in him a strong passion for French literature and French society. He had an unbounded admiration for the writings of Voltaire, and at a later period Frederick and the witty, but cynical, French poet became great friends. Surrounding himself at Rheinsburg by French and German poets and artists, Frederick spent most of his time in literary recreations. The old king uttered a ferocious growl at these diversions now and then, but he could always be propitiated by the present of a tall grenadier for his army, and Frederick judiciously offered such presents from time to time.

On the death of his father in 1740 Frederick became king. He had now at his command the best-disciplined army in Europe and a treasury full of money. Forsaking the easy, epicurean life he had led at Rheinsburg, he determined to verify the dream of his unhappy boyhood

and become a great soldier. The opportunity was not wanting. Charles VI. of Germany had just died, leaving his dominions to his young daughter, Maria Theresa. Frederick had promised, with all the great European powers, to recognize Maria Theresa as empress of Germany, but ambition tempted him to break faith with the sovereign he had bound himself to defend, and he marched his army into Silesia and took possession of that rich province. When the war, which this unwarrantable act kindled, finally closed, Frederick retained his hold upon Silesia. This conquest doubled the number of his subjects.

Frederick's army was his great strength. Nearly one-seventh of the able-bodied men in his kingdom were forced into military service. To sustain such an army the strictest economy was enforced in every other department of the government and even in the royal household. The king examined every extraordinary item of expense with the care of the mistress of a boarding-house. Not a bottle of champagne was opened without his express orders. He had only one fine suit of clothes and this lasted all his life, and it is said that when he died he was buried in his valet's shirt, because none of his own were decent enough for the purpose.

Maria Theresa had never forgotten the injury she had suffered at the hands of Frederick in being robbed of Silesia, and during the interval of peace she succeeded in forming a powerful league against him. Austria, France, Russia, Sweden, and Saxony joined to crush this aggressive king who had proved so bad a neighbor and who amused himself by writing satirical verses upon all the potentates of Europe. Ferreting out the designs of his enemies, Frederick formed a league with the German George of England, who feared for the safety of his beloved Hanover. Then, resolving to anticipate his foes, Frederick invaded Saxony at the head of seventy thousand men and began the "Seven Years' War" (1756). His army was in splendid condition, and at first

he won some victories over the French, Austrians, and Russians that astonished the world. But then reverses came. England deserted him. The Russians and Austrians entered Berlin and pillaged it, and Frederick in despair was on the point of committing suicide when the death of the Russian empress, Elizabeth, changed the face of European politics. The new czar, Peter III., was a fervent admirer of Frederick, and, after concluding a peace favorable to Prussia, he sent an army to reinforce Frederick's shattered troops. About this time England and France made peace with each other and withdrew from the field, leaving Prussia and Austria to confront each other alone. The Turks were now menacing Austria, and the high-spirited Maria Theresa was forced to close the war (1763).

Frederick was saved, but his kingdom had suffered terribly. The war had been carried into almost every Prussian province; the fields lay uncultivated; the flocks and herds of cattle had been swept away by famine and disease; the population had decreased ten per cent. In village after village not a single inhabitant remained. Frederick spent great sums of money in agricultural and industrial improvements, endeavoring to repair the mischief done by the war. Amid all his efforts for the advancement of his country he continued to keep a standing army of one hundred and sixty thousand men.

Frederick the Great died in 1786, having reigned nearly forty-seven years. He was a daring and skilful soldier, a man of inordinate ambition, a scoffer at religion, unsparing of the feelings of others, and malevolent in the extreme. Such a character does not merit the surname of "Great," often bestowed unjustly upon historical personages.

1787. Adoption of the Constitution of the United States.

After the close of the Revolutionary War it was found that the Articles of Confederation

under which the colonies had organized a government during the war were not adapted to their condition as an independent nation. It was evident that a more powerful general government was needed. A convention of the States was accordingly held in Philadelphia in May, 1787, to consult as to the best means of remedying the defects in their political organization. George Washington presided over the assembly. Hamilton, Madison, Franklin, Randolph, and other remarkable statesmen were present at this convention. There was great diversity of opinion as to the character of the constitution necessary, and after long and animated debate the task of framing a constitution that should meet the requirements of the States at large was referred to a committee. At the end of ten days the committee reported a rough draft of the Constitution as it now stands. Every point was ably and critically discussed, amendments were made, and at the end of four months the Constitution was signed by the representatives of all the States present except three (September, 1787).

The new Constitution was then sent to Congress and to all the State legislatures for adoption. It met with considerable opposition, but was powerfully sustained by James Madison, Alexander Hamilton, and John Jay, and it was finally adopted by all the States. It went into effect on the 4th of March, 1789.

1789. The Great French Revolution.

Louis XVI. began his reign in 1774 with the best intentions. Unlike his predecessors of the previous two hundred years, he cared for his people and meant that they should be happy. But his country was in a sad condition. The ruinous extravagance of the preceding reigns had created an enormous national debt. Two-thirds of the soil was owned by the nobility and clergy, who were almost entirely exempt from

taxation, and were intolerably arrogant and oppressive in their treatment of the wretched peasants, upon whom the burden of the taxes pressed heavily,—so heavily that the poor creatures had scarcely enough left to keep life within their bodies after their taxes were paid. So utterly exhausted were the poor that cases were known of men literally eating grass like beasts. All over the land there was a cry for bread. The king pitied the distress of his people, although he did not know the extent of their sufferings, and his ministers tried to reform abuses and establish a system of general taxation; but they were obstinately opposed by the aristocracy, who were unwilling to sacrifice one shilling of their wealth or one iota of their privileges. All this time the young and thoughtless Marie Antoinette was spending unlimited sums of money in balls and other costly amusements. To meet the expenses of the court and government, money was borrowed on every side without a thought or prospect of repayment. But the day came when the royal treasury could not be filled by borrowing, and Necker, the king's prime minister of earlier days, was recalled to solve the problem. He advised the king to yield to the cry for the assembly of the States-General,—a body somewhat resembling the English Parliament. There had been no such thing since the ominous days when Richelieu made his first appearance in the assembly of 1614. Complying with the demand of the nation, Louis XVI. convened the States-General at Versailles in May, 1789. For the first time in nearly two hundred years the representatives of the people, the "Third Estate," were to sit in council with the clergy and nobility. At the very outset a difficulty arose. The deputies of the people insisted on occupying the same room as the nobles and clergy, and, when the coronets and mitres refused haughtily to meet with them, the Third Estate proceeded to organize independently of the higher orders. The king attempted to close their session, but Mirabeau, one of the most

prominent among them, cried out, "We are here by the will of the people, and we shall not budge save at the point of the bayonet." The gauntlet of defiance was at last thrown down. The era of the *French Revolution* was begun.

Louis XVI., whose fatal weakness was irresolution, yielded, and at his request many of the higher orders joined in the deliberations of the *National Assembly*, as the Third Estate had christened themselves.

Meanwhile, all Paris was in a state of insane commotion. A fierce mob, brutalized by long years of misery and driven to frenzy by revolutionary orators, raged through the streets. Suddenly there came the rumor that soldiers were on their march to Versailles to dissolve the Assembly. Wild with rage and excitement the populace rushed to the Bastille, the grim old prison whose very name made the blood run cold because of the horrors that had been perpetrated within its dark walls. In a few hours the mob forced an entrance, murdered the governor, and released the prisoners. Two days afterwards this stronghold of despotism was levelled to the ground. Like wildfire the excitement now spread through the land. The villas of many of the nobles were destroyed, and their occupants were killed or driven into the woods to perish. Louis, hoping to save the country by the sacrifice of his personal power, appeared before the Assembly and adopted the Tricolor,—the red, white, and blue badge of revolution. But it was too late to stay the gathering storm.

One day in October a hideous rabble of women toiled down to Versailles, clamoring for bread. The king and the Assembly satisfied them for the time with assurances, but they soon provoked a quarrel with the king's body-guard, and a general affray ensued. Early the next morning some of the rioters forced their way into the palace with ribald songs and oaths, and the queen, whom they greatly disliked, had barely time to escape when her room was filled with

the squalid throng. The arrival of La Fayette, commander of the National Guard, and the king's consent to return to Paris quelled the tumult. Escorted by the savage mob Louis and his family returned to Paris and took up their abode, virtual prisoners, in the palace of the Tuileries.

1789. George Washington, First President of the United States.

George Washington was born in Westmoreland County, Virginia, in 1732. His father, Augustus Washington, a man of considerable wealth, died when George was eleven years old. His mother was a woman of vigorous character and masculine will, and without doubt the character of her distinguished son was moulded by her influence. Washington was educated in the local schools of the neighborhood, where he was taught reading, writing, and arithmetic, with the unusual addition of book-keeping and surveying. His surveying he put to practical account when he was about sixteen by surveying a tract of land on the Potomac for Lord Fairfax, an extensive land-owner in Virginia. In such employment he passed the next three years of his life, strengthening his body by exercise and the hardships of life in the wilderness and cultivating habits of endurance and self-reliance, which served him in good stead in after-years.

In 1753 the governor of Virginia selected young Washington to be the bearer of a despatch to the French commander of Fort Le Bœuf, near Lake Erie, to demand the reason of French intrusion upon the Ohio River and its tributaries, a section claimed by the English. In the autumn of the year Washington set out with four or five companions upon this perilous expedition through lands uninhabited for the most part except by hostile Indians. After a journey of four hundred miles, half the distance through a dense wilderness, he arrived at Fort Le Bœuf and delivered his despatches. Having

received a sealed reply, he set out upon the homeward journey without delay. Violent storms overtook him. The streams were swollen. The horses finally gave out, and with one companion Washington was forced to continue his journey on foot. In attempting to cross the Alleghany River on a rude raft Washington was thrown into the stream between the floating ice, and swimming to a small island he was compelled to pass the bitter night in that unprotected position.

After an absence of eleven weeks he stood in the presence of the governor with the reply of the French commandant. The French had no notion of giving up the territory in dispute, and the troubles culminated in the French and Indian War. Washington took an active part in this war, and after five years' military service retired to his home at Mount Vernon on the Potomac, having won the confidence and admiration of his countrymen for his courage and discretion.

When the Revolutionary War broke out, Washington was the unanimous choice of Congress for commander-and-chief of the American army. At the close of the war, which had been carried to a successful issue largely through his skill and patience, he resigned his commission and quietly withdrew to Mount Vernon, from which he was called in 1789 to accept the highest honor that his grateful countrymen could bestow,—the Presidency of the United States.

1793. Death of Louis XVI. and Marie Antoinette.

After the return of Louis XVI. to Paris in 1789 the Revolution advanced with rapid strides. The Assembly, of which Mirabeau was the guiding spirit, adopted a constitution and limited the power of the king. Mirabeau, who was a nobleman by birth and was more anxious for *reformation* than *revolution*, died in 1791. Louis's last hope was thus destroyed. He attempted to

flee from the country, but was recognized and brought back to Paris.

The National Assembly dissolved itself in September, 1791. Its place was taken by a new body called the Legislative Assembly. In this new organization there was a large party hostile to the monarchy. Every day the situation of the wretched king became more critical. He had sworn to maintain the constitution and had repeatedly made concessions, but his enemies were not to be conciliated, and each month added to his humiliations. Foreign nations looked on in alarm, and in 1792 Austria and Prussia sent their armies to defend the cause of royalty. The advance of these foreign troops goaded the French to fury. The Paris mob raged through the streets, and on the 10th of August rushed to the Tuileries and massacred the king's Swiss guard. Louis escaped, and threw himself upon the protection of the Assembly, but they ordered him and his family to be imprisoned in the Temple.

The Assembly was then dissolved and the National Convention took its place (September, 1792). France was declared a republic and the fate of the king was sealed. The National Convention resolved itself into two parties, bitterly hostile to each other,—the Girondists, or moderate republicans, and the Mountain (so called because they occupied the highest seats), or red republicans, who were supported by the Commune of Paris and were eager to push the revolution to the utmost limit. Of this latter party Robespierre, Danton, and Marat were the leaders. A victory gained by the army of the French republic over the Austrians at Jemmapes in Belgium emboldened the revolutionists, and the king was brought to trial for conspiring against the liberties of France. In a simple, manly, and affecting way Louis denied the justness of the charge, but after a trial of seventy-two hours sentence of death was pronounced. On the 21st of January, 1793, the unfortunate monarch ascended the scaffold to expiate, not his own

crimes, but those of his ancestors and of his position. "Son of St. Louis," said the priest in attendance, "ascend to heaven!" The drums beat,—and all was over.

In October, 1793, the once beautiful, but now prematurely old, Marie Antoinette followed her husband to the block.

1794. Death of Robespierre. End of Reign of Terror.

On the death of Louis XVI. a small body of the Mountain party, called the "Committee of Public Safety," became all-powerful. Foremost among the members of this committee were Robespierre, Danton, and Marat. The most severe and sanguinary laws were enacted against those who were known to be adverse to the revolution, and the Reign of Terror now began (June, 1793). Moderation became treason. Great numbers of the Girondists were put to death; among them the celebrated Madame Roland, famous not alone for the active part she took in revolutionary politics, but also for her literary attainments.

The blood-thirsty Marat was at length assassinated by Charlotte Corday, a young Norman woman, who by this act sacrificed her life to rid the country of this great monster. But the death of Marat left Robespierre sole dictator of the unhappy land. In Paris the guillotine was plied with unceasing activity. Whole families were led to the block for no other crime than their relationship. As fast as the prisons were emptied by this wholesale murder fresh victims were found, and so the frightful carnage continued day after day. Women brought their work and sat by the scaffold, watching with calm satisfaction the terrible tragedies enacted thereon. The nation had gone mad with the lust of blood. It is little wonder that the Christian religion was set aside during this awful period, but it does seem a strange inconsistency that the worship of *Reason* should have been substituted.

In the provinces scenes of violence similar to those at Paris were enacted. At Nantes barges were laden with victims and then sunk in the river Loire. Lyons, for resisting the army of the Convention, was razed to the ground, and the inhabitants were mowed down in groups by grape-shot. To escape such horrors Toulon surrendered to the English, who had joined the other nations of Europe in a war against the French republic, but it was recovered by the revolutionary army through the genius of a young artillery officer named Napoleon Bonaparte. The whole country was one vast conflagration of revolt and vengeance.

When the Revolutionists had exhausted their rage upon their enemies they turned upon each other. Danton and his adherents were guillotined, and at last Robespierre himself, the blood-stained despot, was denounced before the Convention. Had there been a moment's hesitation, the Convention itself would have been massacred. Pale with rage and foaming at the mouth, Robespierre tried over and over again to get a hearing, but his words were drowned by the violent ringing of the president's bell and by loud cries of "Down with the tyrant!" He was then placed under arrest and led away. Liberated by the Commune, he fled to the Hôtel de Ville, but the Convention sent troops thither with bayonet and cannon, and he was recaptured. Thoughts of the guillotine, to which he had condemned so many innocent victims, so terrified the wretched coward that, it is said, he attempted suicide, but only broke his jaw.* Groaning with agony and shivering with terror, he was dragged to the place of execution, amid the hoots and jibes of the mob, and there miserably perished (July, 1794). His death ended the Reign of Terror. Not less than eighteen thousand persons were put to death during this period of fever heat of the Revolution.

* Other writers claim that he was wounded by one of the soldiers at the time of his arrest.

1795. The French Directory. End of the Revolution.

The first inclination of the popular party after the death of Robespierre was to keep up the Revolutionary tribunal, but a reaction took place, and the moderate party recovered its influence. A new constitution was adopted,—the third since 1789,—and the executive authority was intrusted to a directory of five persons. The sections of Paris objected to these changes and rose in insurrection, backed by the National Guard, forty thousand strong. There were only five thousand troops in Paris on the side of the Convention. Things began to assume a very serious aspect.

Napoleon Bonaparte, the young officer who had distinguished himself at Toulon, was then at Paris. His promptitude of resources and his firm character recommended him to the Convention, and he was selected to conduct the military operations against the rioters. He immediately took possession of the artillery, which was collected five miles from Paris, and was not a moment too soon, for a body of the insurgents was advancing for the same purpose. They retreated at sight of the cavalry having the artillery in charge, and it was safely conducted to the Tuileries. Planting his cannon so as to command every street by which the Tuileries could be approached, Napoleon, in the name of the Convention, ordered the advancing columns of the rioters to disperse. They refused. Without a moment's hesitation Napoleon opened fire, and as the grape-shot tore through the crowd, the masses fell back and dispersed (October 5, 1795). The new constitution was firmly established and the French Revolution was ended.

1795. Dismemberment of Poland.

Poland was an extensive and powerful kingdom during the Middle Ages. About the middle of the sixteenth century it began to decay. One of its most famous kings was John Sobieski,

whose reign was largely occupied by wars with the Cossacks and Turks. It was this warrior king who drove the Turks from Vienna in 1683.

The last king of Poland was Stanislas Augustus Poniatowski, who ascended the throne in 1764. Poniatowski was a feeble and fickle prince, and the dissensions and anarchy prevailing in his country increased during his administration. The unsettled condition of Poland excited the cupidity of her powerful neighbors, Russia, Austria, and Prussia, and in 1772 the Prussians and Austrians invaded the country and began its dismemberment. Frederick the Great, Catherine of Russia, and Maria Theresa each secured a share of the spoil, leaving to the Polish king only a nominal authority over the few provinces they allowed him to retain.

In 1792 the Poles made an effort to rid themselves of the authority of the partitioning powers. This led to an invasion of the unhappy country by the Russians, and Poniatowski was obliged to submit to the second partition, by which his territories were still further diminished.

In 1794 a great insurrection broke out, and the Poles, led by the brave and illustrious Kosciusko, made a last effort to regain their independence. But the resources of the country were limited, and there was no unanimity among the leaders. Warsaw, the ancient capital, was taken by storm, Kosciusko was made prisoner by the Russians, and Poniatowski died a broken-hearted exile. Russia, Prussia, and Austria now proceeded to the third and final partition of Poland (1795). This division annihilated its existence as an independent country, and the name of Poland was stricken from the list of European nations.

great Revolution, was born in 1769 at Ajaccio in the island of Corsica. He was educated in the military schools of Brienne and Paris, and in 1785 received his commission as an artillery officer. He first came into notice at the siege of Toulon, and subsequently attracted public attention by the skill with which he dispersed the mob in Paris on the Day of the Sections.

In 1796 he was chosen by the Directory to lead an army into Italy with the object of advancing upon Austria, with which country the French republic was still at war. Napoleon was only twenty-six years old when he received the command of the army of Italy, but his military talents were of the highest order and were universally acknowledged by the officers of the army.

Just before leaving Paris to take command of his army, Napoleon married Josephine de Beauharnais, the widow of an officer who had perished during the Revolution. He then set out for Nice, where the army had its headquarters. The men were in a wretched condition,—badly clothed, badly fed, so low were the finances of the government at this time. On reviewing his troops the young general said, "Soldiers, you are naked and ill-fed. Government owes you much and can give you nothing. It is my design to lead you into the most fertile plains of the world. Rich provinces and great cities will be in your power; there you will find honor and glory and wealth. Soldiers of Italy! will you be wanting in courage or perseverance?" The army responded with eager acclamations, and Napoleon gave orders to advance upon the campaign. The French army numbered forty thousand, the Austrian an equal number, assisted by a smaller force of Sardinians. Entering Italy at the only point where the Alps sank to a trifling elevation, Napoleon hastened forward, separated the Austrian and Sardinian armies, always "throwing the strongest force on the weakest point," and soon made himself master of Piedmont and Sardinia.

1797. Napoleon Bonaparte's Conquest of Italy.

Napoleon Bonaparte, the central figure of French history for twenty years succeeding the

The most famous battle of this campaign was the passage of the Bridge of Lodi, where the French soldiers gave Napoleon the nickname of the "Little Corporal" in compliment to his bravery. Napoleon then entered Milan in triumph. Many of the finest works of art were confiscated and sent to Paris to grace the galleries of the Louvre.

The road to Central Italy was now open, but before advancing in that direction the conqueror drove the Austrians out of Lombardy. He then turned towards the Papal States and Naples. On condition of the payment of large sums of money and the surrender of many valuable works of art, these states secured an armistice, and Napoleon turned northward again to confront the new Austrian army advancing from the Tyrol. In five days the Austrians were driven back, leaving fifteen thousand prisoners in the hands of Napoleon.

Flushed with continued victory Napoleon determined to invade Austria, and he was marching rapidly upon Vienna when proposals of peace were set on foot. While these negotiations were in progress the conqueror coolly possessed himself of the republic of Venice, although it had tried to preserve a neutrality in the war. The treaty of Campo Formio was concluded in October, 1797. Venice was basely given over to the Austrian emperor, Northern Italy, excepting the parts owned by Austria, was transformed into the Cisalpine Republic, and the boundaries of France were extended to the Rhine.

When the conqueror returned to Paris the enthusiasm of the people knew no bounds, and everywhere the "quiet-mannered little Corsican" was hailed as a hero.

1798. Battle of the Nile.

Napoleon's brilliant campaign in Italy led the Directory to urge him to the invasion of England, the most determined enemy of the French

republic. But Napoleon deemed it safer to aim a blow at England by conquering Egypt, her great commercial highway to India. In 1798 he landed with a large army near Alexandria, captured that city, almost annihilated the Mamelukes (Turkish slaves trained to war), and marched victorious into Cairo.

But a great disaster was about to overtake him. Nelson, the great English admiral, had followed Napoleon's fleet down the Mediterranean, and when he sighted the French squadron in the bay of Aboukir, at the mouth of the Nile, he exclaimed, "Before this time to-morrow I shall have gained a peerage or Westminster Abbey."

The battle began at sunset and lasted until daybreak. The French fleet was almost entirely destroyed, and never was naval victory more complete. Nelson was severely wounded, but he gained his peerage.

Nothing daunted, Napoleon pushed on into Syria and took Jaffa. He then laid siege to Acre, the key of Syria, but he was repulsed by an army of Turks and English under Sir Sidney Smith. Returning to Egypt, he learned that a new coalition had formed against France. Austria, Russia, and England were menacing his country, the Directory had fallen into disfavor, and the only soldier who was equal to the occasion felt that he was needed in France. Leaving his army with General Kleber, Napoleon hastened to Paris without delay.

1799. Washington's Administration and Death.

After the Constitution of the United States had been made the supreme law of the nation George Washington was chosen President by the unanimous vote of the electors. John Adams, of Massachusetts, was elected Vice-President. On the 30th of April, 1789, they were inaugurated at New York. The first session of Congress was chiefly occupied in the

organization of the new government. Washington appointed Thomas Jefferson Secretary of State, Alexander Hamilton Secretary of the Treasury, and Henry Knox Secretary of War. Hamilton inaugurated a sound system of finance and placed the credit of the country on a firm basis.

During Washington's administration a war broke out with the Indians along the Ohio, but it was finally brought to a close by General Wayne, who made a treaty with the Indians which they faithfully kept for years.

About this time the two great political parties, the Federalists and the Democrats, began to organize. The former, led by Washington, Adams, Hamilton, and others, were opposed to States rights; the latter, under such leaders as Jefferson and Madison, favored States rights, and would subordinate the nation to the States.

In 1792 Washington and Adams were re-elected for a second term. During this administration bitter feelings arose between the United States and Great Britain, each accusing the other of violating the treaty of 1783. To avert war

John Jay was sent as a special envoy to England, where, in 1794, a new treaty was concluded. This treaty was considered unfavorable to the United States, and met with no little opposition before it was finally ratified by the Union.

During Washington's term of office three new States were formed: Vermont in 1791, Kentucky in 1792, and Tennessee in 1796.

In 1790 the capital was removed from New York to Philadelphia, where it remained until 1800, when it was located permanently at Washington.

Having declined a third nomination, Washington retired to his home at Mount Vernon and resumed the quiet life of a country gentleman. Two years later the news of his death, on the 14th of December, 1799, plunged the country into the deepest affliction. Everywhere throughout the land solemn and impressive funeral services were performed in honor of the illustrious dead, who among statesmen, warriors, and patriots was, in the language of Byron,—

“The first, the last, the best,
The Cincinnatus of the West.

ENGLISH LIFE DURING THE EIGHTEENTH CENTURY.

THE BRUNSWICK PERIOD.*—1714.

Literature, Science, Fine Arts, etc.

At the beginning of the eighteenth century the fine arts were in a lower state of development than at any time perhaps since the Renaissance. This degradation was not confined to England, but was general throughout Europe.

The art of architecture alone made rapid strides in the works of Sir Christopher Wren,

to whose genius England owes the rebuilding in grandeur of the fire-swept city of London.

Chief among the artists who achieved celebrity in the early part of the century were Sir Godfrey Kneller and William Hogarth. The latter possessed most wonderful genius, both as an engraver and as a painter. Later in the century Sir Joshua Reynolds became pre-eminent in the profession.

Music now began to be cultivated to a considerable extent, and as early as 1703 the Italian opera was introduced at London. Oratorios

* The Brunswick Period includes the reigns of George I., George II., George III., George IV., William IV., and Queen Victoria.

followed, and we are told that for a number of years, dating from 1737, these noblest of all musical productions were performed regularly every Wednesday and Friday during Lent.

About 1785 a series of concerts was held in London, which may be regarded as the germ whence sprung the periodical musical festivals so popular in our times.

The close of the century brings a host of eminent poets, essayists, and novelists before the public, among them Goldsmith, Cowper, Richardson, the inventor of the modern English novel, Sterne, the humorist, Samuel Johnson, author of the English dictionary, and Edmund Burke, eminent both in literature and in politics. Burke was a member of the House of Commons, and made in 1789, during the impeachment of Warren Hastings, one of the greatest speeches that ever was delivered.

Hume, Robertson, and Gibbon, the great historians, flourished and wrote during this period. Robert Burns, the great Scotch poet of the latter half of the century, deserves more than a passing notice. Born in the lower walks of life and writing in the homely dialect with which as a ploughman he was familiar, his felicity of expression is marvellous. Nothing in Horace excels his graceful style. His poetry is as intense as it is beautiful. One writer has said, "It is all light and fire." Burns died at the early age of thirty-seven, with the reputation of being the greatest peasant-poet that has ever appeared.

In mechanical science, the great event of the century was the invention of the modern steam-engine by James Watt, a Scotch philosopher and chemist. An engine of the rudest and simplest character was in use in England at this time, but owing to its crudeness it was of comparatively little value except for pumping water. In 1756 Watt became the manufacturer of scientific instruments for the University of Glasgow. He was requested to make a model of the steam-engine then in use. Seeing how

defective the engine was, he immediately set to work making various experiments on the application of steam-power. These experiments led to the invention (1769) of several valuable improvements, which when applied to the engine then in use gave to the world the marvellous steam-engine in use to-day. Watt's invention is considered second only to printing in its results. All branches of manufacture made wonderful strides as soon as the steam-engine became the motive-power of machinery. Towards the close of the century the application of steam to navigation began to dawn upon the thinking public, but it was not until after the beginning of the present century that steamboats and steam railroads came into use.

In medical science, the great discovery of the century was vaccination for small-pox. This discovery was made by Dr. Jenner, an English physician, in 1798. Small-pox had been the great scourge of European countries. Dr. Jenner's attention was first called to the subject of the possibility of preventing this loathsome disease by hearing a countrywoman say that "she could not take the small-pox, because she had had the cow-pox." After thorough investigation and experiment, Dr. Jenner found that by inoculating with the virus taken from the cow at a certain stage of disease the human system was fortified against the attacks of the dreaded small-pox. For his valuable discovery Dr. Jenner received from Parliament thirty thousand pounds, or one hundred and fifty thousand dollars.

At first Dr. Jenner's theory was bitterly opposed by the superstitious, but, notwithstanding ridicule and opposition, his discovery proved to be one of the greatest boons medical science had ever conferred upon suffering humanity.

Manners and Customs.

The last trace of the feudal nobleman disappeared before George III. came to the throne. There were no longer trains of armed depend-

ants around each castle hall. The English still indulged their fondness for feasting and entertainments, but these had assumed a more elegant and refined character than in earlier times. A favorite style of entertainment among the wealthy classes was the lawn fête. Gardens and grounds were brilliantly illuminated, and refreshments, music, dancing, and cards filled in the pleasures of the evening. Balls on a magnificent scale were frequently given.

Clubs for gentlemen became fashionable. A few had a political character, but most of them were merely resorts of leisure. These clubs were much patronized by the literary men of the times. A more elevating species of entertainment—the lecture—now came into fashion, but owing to the limited education of the masses it was confined to a small circle.

About 1781 it became a custom among the ladies of London who were fond of intellectual society to open their homes of an evening to men and women of letters and genius and pass the time in cultured conversation. One of the most eminent attendants at these gatherings was a Mr. Stillingfleet, whose costume, otherwise plain enough, attracted attention because he always wore blue stockings. So entertaining a conversationalist was he that it came to be said when he was absent, "We can do nothing without the Blue Stockings," and finally these meetings came to be called the Blue-Stocking Clubs. The nobility and educated middle classes here met on common ground,—that of literary merit,—and the barriers between these two grades of society gradually became less formidable. In the earlier days there were but two classes of society,—the nobility and the poor. But the increase of trade and the spread of education had brought to the surface a large and continually growing body of citizens who at this period formed a powerful *middle class*, and to whom England is indebted to-day for her constitutional liberties.

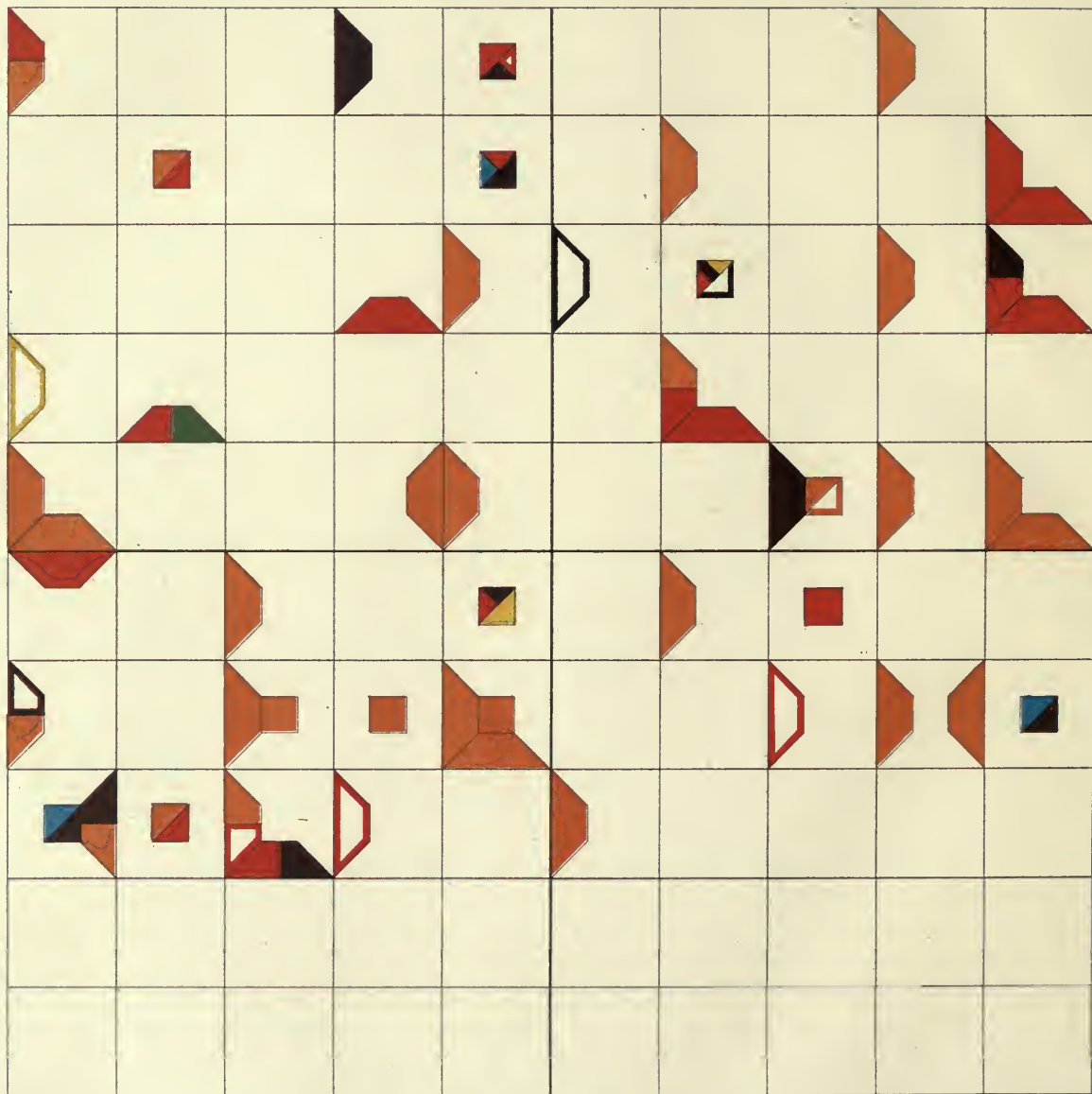
The police regulations of London during this

period were little better than in the preceding century. Robbery, abduction, and murder were still common occurrences in the streets of the metropolis. Respectable people were not safe on the streets at night after nine o'clock. The amusements of the lower classes were coarse and brutal. Prize-fights, boxing-matches, cock-fighting, and similar pastimes were popular, and drew audiences that were not always composed exclusively of the humbler orders of society.

The English costume of the period was a modification of that of former times. The long hose of the gentlemen had given way to knee-breeches and stockings. They also wore long-waisted coats with skirts reaching to the knees. Wigs, curled and powdered, were indispensable to men of fashion. The buttons on their coats and the buckles on their shoes grew to such an enormous size that they were caricatured in the pictorials of the day. The chief feature of the ladies' costume was the enormous bell-hoop, worn to make the skirts stand out. There was as much variety in head-dresses or bonnets as there always is in ladies' fashions. Some of these head-dresses were enormously and ridiculously tall. Most elegant toilets had long pointed waists, with flowing sleeves and skirts of brocaded silk or velvet. Spanish mantuas for the shoulders were much worn. Belles and beaux vied with each other in extravagance of dress, both as to style and as to quality.

The close of the eighteenth century finds the English people more domestic in their habits than formerly. The court of George III. was simple and almost homely in its tastes. The king was illiterate and cared for none of the arts or sciences save music, but he was a man of strict morals, and the tone of his court was in accordance with his life. The domestic habits of the king and queen flattered the middle classes and won their loyal admiration, while the horrors of the French Revolution caused all classes of English subjects to cling more closely to their king and the throne.

CHART OF XIX CENTURY.



See Explanation of Chart
on page 9.

- | | |
|----------------|---------|
| England | Spain. |
| United States. | Mexico. |
| Russia | Brazil. |
| Germany | |
| Prussia. | Turkey. |
| France | Italy. |

NINETEENTH CENTURY.

CHRONOLOGY.

- 1801.** Thomas Jefferson, of Virginia, became third President of the United States.
- 1801.** The first United Parliament of Great Britain and Ireland assembled at Westminster.—*Green, Eng.*, p. 776.
- 1804.** Napoleon Bonaparte was proclaimed Emperor of the French.—*Lan. Nap. I.*; *Van Laun, Fr. Rev. Ep.*, book v. ch. i.; *Fyffe, Mod. E.*, vol. i. p. 226.
- 1805.** The French and Spanish fleets were defeated by the English off Cape Trafalgar and Lord Nelson was killed.—*Green, Eng.*, p. 780; *Bright, Eng.*, p. 1265; *Jones, Mod. E.*, vol. iii. p. 492.
- 1809.** James Madison, of Virginia, became fourth President of the United States.
- 1812.** The United States declared war against Great Britain.—*Bry. U. S.*, vol. iv. p. 185.
- 1815.** Napoleon was defeated by Wellington at Waterloo, and exiled to St. Helena.—*Van Laun, Fr. Rev. Ep.*, book vi. ch. i.; *Jones, Mod. E.*, vol. iii. p. 629.
- 1817.** James Monroe, of Virginia, became fifth President of the United States.
- 1820.** George III. of England died; he was succeeded by his son, George IV.—*Bright, Eng.*, p. 1035; *Pict. Eng., Geo. III.*, vol. i. p. 2.
- 1824.** Lord Byron died at Missolonghi, in Greece.—*Mac. Es.*, vol. ii. p. 324.
- 1825.** John Quincy Adams, of Massachusetts, became sixth President of the United States.
- 1826.** The Janizaries were suppressed by Sultan Mahmoud II.—*Creas. Ot. T.*, p. 502.
- 1827.** The Turco-Egyptian fleet was destroyed by the allied fleets of England, France, and Russia in the battle of Navarino.—*Creas. Ot. T.*, p. 511; *Jones, Mod. E.*, vol. iii. p. 659; *Fin. Gr. Rev.*
- 1829.** Andrew Jackson, of Tennessee, became seventh President of the United States.
- 1830.** George IV. of England died; he was succeeded by his brother, William IV.—*Grev. Mem.*, vol. i.; *Bright, Eng.*, p. 1364.
- 1830.** Charles X. of France abdicated, and Louis Philippe became king.—*White, France*, p. 537; *Van Laun, Fr. Rev. Ep.*, book vi. ch. ii.
- 1831.** Dom Pedro I. of Brazil abdicated, and his son, Dom Pedro II., became emperor.
- 1832.** Sir Walter Scott died.—*Lock. Scott.*
- 1832.** Goethe, the greatest of German poets, died.—*Lew. Goethe.*
- 1837.** William IV. of England died; he was succeeded by his niece, Victoria.—*Grev. Mem.*, vol. ii.; *McCar. Own Times*, vol. i. ch. i.
- 1837.** Martin Van Buren, of New York, became eighth President of the United States.
- 1841.** William Henry Harrison, of Ohio, became ninth President of the United States.
- 1841.** President Harrison died, and the Vice-President, John Tyler, of Virginia, became tenth President of the United States.
- 1844.** The First Telegraph Line in the United States was constructed between Washington and Baltimore by Professor Morse.—*Prime, Morse*, ch. xi.
- 1845.** James K. Polk, of Tennessee, became eleventh President of the United States.
- 1848.** The Mexican War closed and New Mexico and California were ceded to the United States.—*Loss. U. S.*, p. 481.
- 1848.** The Third French Revolution broke out. Louis Philippe abdicated, and Louis Napoleon became President of the French Republic.—*Al. E.*, vol. iv. ch. 1.; *Van Laun, Fr. Rev. Ep.*, book vii. ch. i.
- 1849.** Zachary Taylor, of Louisiana, became twelfth President of the United States.
- 1850.** President Taylor died, and the Vice-President, Millard Fillmore, of New York, became thirteenth President of the United States.
- 1851.** Tennyson succeeded Wordsworth as Poet-laureate of England.
- 1853.** Franklin Pierce, of New Hampshire, became fourteenth President of the United States.
- 1855.** Sebastopol, the great Russian fortress of the Crimea, was besieged and taken by the English and French.

—*Kel. Rus.*, p. 502; *McCar. Own Times*, chaps. xxvii. and xxviii.

1857. **James Buchanan**, of Pennsylvania, became fifteenth President of the United States.
1858. The **Indian Mutiny** was crushed by the British.—*Grant, Sep. War; But. Veda.*
1861. **Abraham Lincoln**, of Illinois, became sixteenth President of the United States.
1861. The **Confederate States** seceded from the Union.
1861. The Italian States were consolidated and **Victor Emmanuel** became king of new **Italy**.—*Prob. Es.*, p. 42; *Ad. Cam. Eu.*, ch. ix.
1863. **Vicksburg** surrendered to General Grant.
1863. The Confederates, led by General Lee, were defeated by the Union forces under General Meade at **Gettysburg**.
1863. The **Emancipation Proclamation** of President Lincoln freed the slaves in the insurgent States.
1864. General Sherman took **Atlanta**, and began his march through Georgia to the sea.
1865. General Lee surrendered the Army of Virginia to General Grant at **Appomattox**, and the Civil War came to an end.
1865. **President Lincoln** was re-elected.
1865. President Lincoln was assassinated on the 14th of April, and the Vice-President, **Andrew Johnson**, of Tennessee, became **seventeenth** President of the United States.
1868. **Queen Isabella** of Spain was dethroned.—*An. Reg.*
1869. **Ulysses S. Grant**, of Illinois, became **eighteenth** President of the United States.
1869. The **Central Pacific Railroad** was completed.—*Nord. Cal.*, p. 45.
1870. On the 19th of July **France** declared war against **Prussia**.—*Ab. Fran.-Prus. War*, ch. xvi.; *Ad. Cam. Eu.*, p. 556; *La. Chap. War in 1870*.
1870. On the 2d of September **Napoleon III.**, Marshal McMahon, and the French army surrendered to the Prussians at **Sedan**.—*Van Laun, Fr. Rev. Ep.*, book ix. ch. i.
1871. **Paris** surrendered to the Prussians, and the Franco-Prussian War came to an end.—*Ab. Fran.-Prus. War*, ch. xxv.
1871. The **Mont Cenis Tunnel** was completed.
1871. A great part of the city of **Chicago** was destroyed by fire.—*Loss. U. S.*, p. 739.
1872. The **Alabama Claims** were settled.—*Loss. U. S.*, pp. 707, 740; *Tri. Arbt.*
1873. **President Grant** was re-elected.
1873. The **Spanish Republic** was founded.
1873. **Dr. Livingstone**, the great African explorer, died while searching for the head-waters of the Nile.—*Liv. Jour.*
1873. **Napoleon III.** died in England.
1874. The Spanish Republic was abolished, and the monarchy restored with **Alfonso XII.** as king.
1876. The **Centennial** of American Independence was celebrated at Philadelphia.

HISTORIC SKETCHES.

1801. Legislative Union of Great Britain and Ireland.

THE French Revolution inspired some of the bold Irish leaders to make an effort to separate Ireland from the British empire and found a republic. But the British government received timely warning of the conspiracy, and the insurrection was speedily crushed.

This rebellion convinced the statesmen of England of the necessity of binding Ireland more closely to the empire. In pursuance of

this idea the Irish Parliament was dissolved in 1801, and Ireland thereafter sent her representatives to the Parliament of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland.

There was a great deal of opposition in Ireland to the Union, and another unsuccessful insurrection took place. Robert Emmet, the unfortunate leader, was tried, sentenced, and executed for his misguided patriotism.

The Union was not productive of the good results hoped for, and the condition of Ireland has not been much improved.

1804. Napoleon I., Emperor of the French.

Napoleon returned to France in 1799 at a critical moment. During his absence in Syria and Egypt Austria, assisted by Russia, had recovered her possessions in Italy, the French armies had been defeated on the Rhine, and the Directory, held responsible for these reverses, had fallen into disgrace. Feeling sure of the devotion of the army to his interests, Napoleon marched into the Council with a band of grenadiers on the 10th of November, 1799, and, like a second Cromwell, overturned the government at the point of the bayonet. The executive power was then placed in the hands of three consuls appointed for ten years. Napoleon, as First Consul, held all the real power. With vigor and address he introduced reforms into every department of the government. Then raising an immense army, he resumed military operations, routed the Austrians at Marengo, and recovered Italy (1800). The victory of General Moreau at Hohenlinden followed, and the Austrians once more made peace (1801).

The First Consul next succeeded in forming a league of the northern powers against England, the nation he dreaded most, but Lord Nelson crushed the naval power of Denmark in one battle, and the giant league fell to pieces.

Napoleon then turned his attention to the improvement of his country. He adopted a wise and liberal policy. Christianity had already been restored, the people gladly welcoming the sound of the church-bells as before the Revolution. A general pardon was offered to all exiles who would swear allegiance to the new government, and thousands were induced to return home. A new order of nobility was formed called the Legion of Honor; the College of France and various military schools were organized; and the Code Napoléon gave the people the best system of laws in Europe.

Delighted with the rule of the First Consul the people proclaimed him consul for life (1802).

But his ambition was not yet satisfied. He caused the senate to proclaim him emperor, and the people raising no objection, in 1804 he assumed the imperial crown.

He then crossed to Italy, transformed the republics into a kingdom, placed on his own brow the "iron crown"* of Lombardy, and assumed the title of Emperor of the French and King of Italy.

1805. Battle of Trafalgar. Death of Nelson.

Napoleon's ambition was insatiable. Not content with the crowns of France and Italy, he aspired to the conquest of Europe. In just alarm England, Russia, Austria, and Sweden now united to crush this mighty usurper, who threatened so seriously to disturb the balance of power in Europe. The first blow was struck at Trafalgar. The French fleet under Admiral Villeneuve had been blockaded at Toulon for nearly a year by Lord Nelson's fleet, but finally escaped to Cadiz, where it joined the Spanish fleet. Nelson made an unsuccessful chase, and returned disheartened to England, but, there learning of Villeneuve's whereabouts, he sailed with all speed for Cadiz.

On the 21st of October, 1805, he discovered the French and Spanish fleets drawn up in two lines ready for battle about seven miles off Cape Trafalgar. The British fleet numbered twenty-seven sail of the line and four frigates, the enemy forty ships. Having issued his orders and signalled the memorable words, "England expects every man to do his duty," Nelson bore down upon the allied fleets. Three hours' desperate fighting ensued and resulted in a glorious victory for the English. Nineteen of the enemy's ships lowered their colors, among them the flag-ship of Admiral Villeneuve.

* In reality a gold crown, but called "the iron crown" because on the inside it was encircled by a small band of iron said to have been made from one of the nails used at the Crucifixion.

During the conflict Lord Nelson was mortally wounded, but he lived long enough to be assured that the most complete success that had ever graced the annals of his country had been won; and, having repeatedly pronounced the words "Thank God! I have done my duty," this great man expired.

Nelson's remains were conveyed to London and interred with royal honors in St. Paul's Cathedral. The death of England's greatest hero was mourned by the people as a national calamity.

1812. War between Great Britain and the United States.

Jealousy on the part of England towards her former dependency led to unjust legislation by Great Britain in regard to commerce and the maritime relations between the two countries, and gross outrages on the seas. The British prohibited all trade with America. British cruisers took the unwarrantable liberty of seizing and searching American vessels to take therefrom all persons thought to be British subjects. The right of an Englishman to throw off his allegiance to Great Britain and become an American citizen had not as yet been acknowledged. "Once an Englishman always an Englishman" was the iron rule. The despotic attitude of Great Britain could lead to but one issue,—war; and accordingly, in June, 1812, the President issued a proclamation of war against Great Britain. This war was fought chiefly upon the sea. To the astonishment and chagrin of the haughty English, the little American navy won a series of brilliant victories over her antagonist, and in the course of the year two hundred and fifty British ships and merchant vessels were captured by the American cruisers. Great was the joy in America, greater the astonishment throughout Europe, and greatest the rage in England, over these unexpected successes of the humble republic.

As the war progressed the campaign on land assumed some importance. Canada was invaded by the American forces. The British sent over in 1814 a squadron of twenty-one vessels with General Ross and an army of four thousand veterans. This armament sailed up the Chesapeake Bay with the purpose of destroying Washington and Baltimore. General Ross partially burned Washington and then advanced on Baltimore. Landing at North Point at the mouth of the Patapsco River, on the 12th of September Ross was marching rapidly towards Baltimore when he was shot by two young men, Wells and McComas, who had been secreted in a clump of bushes for this very purpose. Seeing their commander fall, and observing the smoke of the discharged rifles ascending from the foliage, the enraged British riddled the place with bullets, and the two young men fell pierced with many wounds. A monument was afterwards erected in Baltimore in honor of these brave young patriots. For an hour after the death of Ross the progress of the British was disputed by the Baltimore militia, and at length the invaders were forced to retire. The next morning the fleet began bombarding Fort McHenry. All day long and all through the night shot and shell were hurled upon the fortress. During this terrific cannonading, Francis Key, who had gone to the British squadron to obtain an exchange of prisoners of war, and had waited according to orders until after the battle, stood in his little vessel and watched with the intensest anxiety the stars and stripes fluttering above the fort. By the light of bursting shells he watched through the night; and when the gray light of morn appeared and his strained gaze met the loved emblem still floating in the breeze, the enthusiasm and joy in his heart burst forth in the inspiring words of the "Star-spangled Banner." The bombardment made no serious impression upon Fort McHenry, and on the 14th the British troops embarked and sailed away.

Peace was declared in December of this year

(1814), although none of the issues of the war were distinctively settled by the terms of the treaty. The naval power of the United States was tacitly acknowledged, and the outrages of the previous years were not again attempted by Great Britain.

1815. Battle of Waterloo.

In seven years from the coronation of Napoleon as Emperor of the French the armies of the mighty "Little Corporal," controlled by his wonderful military genius, had made him virtual master of Continental Europe. His own immediate empire extended from Denmark to Naples. His kinsmen sat upon the thrones of Holland, Naples, and Spain. One of his generals was recognized by Sweden as heir to that kingdom. The German states and Switzerland yielded their obedience. Prussia and Austria were humbled in the dust and forced to accept such terms as the haughty usurper chose to dictate. England and Russia were the only nations of importance that yet remained unconquered. All this was the result of only seven years of war.

But the wheel of fortune was about to turn. England, guarded by her fleet, was invincible, but Russia was open to invasion, and, having humiliated her, Napoleon might sit down like Alexander of old and sigh for other worlds to conquer. In defiance of the advice of old counsellors, Napoleon declared war against the czar, and in the summer of 1812 advanced into Russia with more than half a million men. The Russians disputed his advance, but were driven back. As the Grand Army pressed forward, the Russians retired sullenly towards Moscow. Cunningly retreating through a black and desolate section of country, they lured the French to follow through barren tracts, where their horses died for want of forage and the soldiers sickened from malarial diseases. Worn out with sickness and fatigue, the French reached Mos-

cow at last to find an empty triumph. The city was silent and deserted. Then Russian incendiaries set it on fire, and the greater part was reduced to ashes. There was nothing for the French to do but retreat, and just as the terrible Russian winter was beginning they set out upon their fatal march. There is nothing in history more appalling than the story of this retreat. The intense cold, the drifting snow, the icy streams, the murderous attacks of the Cossacks, the pangs of hunger, strewn the line of retreat with the bodies of the dead and dying; and when the remnants of the Grand Army mustered on the banks of the Vistula it was found that nearly two hundred thousand had been made prisoners of war and more than that number had perished in battle or during the fatal retreat. This great disaster encouraged the great European nations to array themselves once more against Napoleon. Hastening with all speed to France, the indomitable emperor raised a new army, and for some time kept his enemies at bay. But the odds were against him. With greatly superior numbers the allies penetrated into France and entered Paris (March, 1814). Napoleon was compelled to abdicate and retire to the island of Elba on a pension. Louis XVIII., brother of the murdered Louis XVI., was proclaimed king of France by the allies.

The next year, while a congress of the Allied Powers was assembled at Vienna to settle the affairs of Europe, there came the startling news that Napoleon had escaped from Elba and had returned to France. The people of France had already become discontented with the rule of the Bourbon, and as Napoleon advanced towards Paris the French soldiers flocked in thousands round his banner. Louis XVIII. fled, and Napoleon was once more installed in the Tuileries (March, 1815). Europe flew to arms. Well aware of the storm about to break over his head, Napoleon strained every nerve to raise a new army. By the middle of June he had col-

lected one hundred and twenty-five thousand men, and with them he advanced into Belgium to confront the English and Prussians, who were preparing to march upon Paris. The Prussians under Blücher were defeated at Ligny, and Napoleon's hopes began to rise. Could he but crush the English he had no fears of the armies advancing beyond the Rhine. The news of Blücher's defeat caused Wellington to fall back from Brussels to Waterloo. Here on Sunday, June 18, the two greatest generals the world ever saw alive at the same time met face to face. The battle began about noon. For hours the solid squares of British infantry met every charge of the squadrons of France without wavering, but every hour those squares grew smaller. Still they held their ground. Then Napoleon resolved to make one last effort to force them from their position. Forming his "Old Guard" into one dense column he sent them charging upon the foe. Wellington ordered his men to lie down under the crest of the hill which they occupied, and opened a tremendous artillery fire upon the advancing column. When within fifty yards of the crest of the ridge the signal was given, "Up, Guards, and at them!" and up sprang the British soldiers four lines deep. A terrible volley poured upon the advancing ranks, and then the British Guards dashed forward for the bayonet charge. The French reeled back from this terrible onset,—wavered—broke—fled. Napoleon tried to rally his disordered columns, but in vain, and, turning his horse in the bitterness of despair, he rode fast from the fatal field. So great was the slaughter in this battle that Wellington is said to have wept as he rode over the battle-ground by moonlight.

Waterloo decided the fate of Napoleon. The allies entered Paris on the 4th of July, 1815, and reinstated Louis XVIII. Napoleon tried to escape to America, but, finding all the ports blockaded by British cruisers, he surrendered to the commander of the "Bellerophon," send-

ing word to the prince regent that "he came, like Themistocles, to claim the hospitality of the British nation and the protection of her laws."

But the British nation had no desire to entertain so dangerous a refugee, and the allied sovereigns exiled him for life to the lonely island of St. Helena. There he lived for nearly six years, restless and uneasy, and ever dreaming of the glorious past. He died in 1821, and in 1840 his remains were removed to Paris and entombed with great splendor and solemnity in the church of the Invalides.

1820. Death of George III. Accession of George IV.

George III. ascended the throne of Great Britain in 1760. He was more popular than the first two Georges had been, not alone because he was a better man, but because he was an Englishman by birth. The English never loved their German kings. George III. was not a clever man, but he was honest and he meant to do what was right. His greatest fault was obstinacy. He had been better educated than his father, and he encouraged literature and learned men. A love of books and of culture spread through the land, and men who wore swords and powdered wigs, the insignia of gentlemen, were ashamed to be illiterate.

The greatest misfortune that happened to England during this reign was the loss of her American colonies. This was mainly due to the short-sighted obstinacy of King George, but after the war was over and the colonies were free and independent, George said frankly to John Adams, who was sent by the United States as envoy to the British court, "I was the last man in the kingdom to consent to the independence of America, but, now it is granted, I shall be the last man in the kingdom to sanction a violation of it."

In 1783 William Pitt the younger, who inherited the talents of his father, became prime minister, at the age of twenty-four. He made his first speech in Parliament when only twenty-one years of age, and Burke, one of the most splendid orators of the day, was so delighted with the young man's speech that he burst into tears, exclaiming, "It is not a chip of the old block; it is the old block itself."

The English empire in India was at this time rapidly enlarging under Warren Hastings, who had been appointed governor-general in 1773. But the measures which he adopted for the subjugation of the country were so unjust and oppressive that on his return to England he was impeached before the House of Lords for his cruel administration. His trial—one of the most memorable in history—commenced in 1788 and went on at intervals for seven years, resulting finally in his acquittal. During the trial many splendid orations were delivered by the managers of the impeachment, Burke, Sheridan, Fox, and others.

Meantime the great French Revolution had broken out. At first the English sympathized with the Revolutionists, but after a year or two they committed such awful crimes that the English became appalled, and in 1793 war was declared between the two countries. Soon all Europe was convulsed with war, and it was not until after the great battle of Waterloo in 1815 that peace was restored.

In his later years George III. became blind and imbecile. Music was his great consolation in his lucid intervals. He died in 1820, in the eighty-second year of his life. His reign of sixty years was the longest and most eventful in English history. He was succeeded by his son, George IV., who had acted as regent during the last ten years of his father's reign.

The principal literary men of the period were Samuel Johnson, author of the Dictionary; Hume and Gibbon, historians; Byron, Wordsworth, Moore, and Scott, poets.

1824. Lord Byron.

Lord George Gordon Byron, one of England's most celebrated poets, was born in London in 1788. His father's family traced its origin back to the time of William the Conqueror, and on his mother's side he was related to the royal family of Scotland. In 1805 Byron entered Trinity College, Cambridge, but, neglecting the prescribed course of study, he divided his time between dissipation and poetry. On leaving Cambridge in 1807, without his degree, he published a volume of poems called, not inaptly, "Hours of Idleness." This book was severely criticised by the "Edinburgh Review." The poet retorted in a caustic satire entitled "English Bards and Scotch Reviewers." In this work Byron was guilty of many harsh and capricious judgments, sparing neither friend nor foe, and he subsequently regretted its publication. Soon after this unfortunate literary venture the poet made the tour of the Continent, visiting Spain, Portugal, and Greece. He gave a picturesque account of his travels in his great poem "Childe Harold's Pilgrimage," the first two cantos of which were published on his return to England in 1812, and were received by the public with unbounded enthusiasm. As Byron himself said, "I awoke one morning and found myself famous." His most servile admirers even imitated his style of dress, and "Byron collars and ties" soon became the rage in fashionable society. In May of the next year appeared his "Giaour;" in November, "The Bride of Abydos" (written in a week); and about three months afterwards, "The Corsair" (written in ten days).

In 1815 Byron married Miss Millbanke, but incompatibility of temper caused a speedy separation. The odium of their separation fell chiefly upon Byron, and he left England in 1816 determined never to return. He resided in Switzerland until the close of the year, composing while there some of his most powerful works,

the third canto of "Childe Harold," "The Prisoner of Chillon," "Darkness," etc. Italy next became the abode of the restless wanderer. There he lived in reckless dissipation, and there he wrote "Don Juan," the most objectionable of his works. He also finished his finest poem, "Childe Harold."

In 1823 Byron interested himself in the cause of Greek independence. With all the funds he could command he sailed for Greece, arriving at Missolonghi in January, 1824. He was gladly welcomed by the Greeks, mainly, it is to be feared, because of his wealth; but he had scarcely arranged his plans for the anticipated campaign when he was seized with a fever and expired in April.

Of the moral character of Byron's poetry there can be but one opinion in every honest and pure mind. His descriptive powers are unusually great, and his poems are full of exquisite beauty, but the tendency of much of his writing is to shake our confidence in virtue and diminish our abhorrence of vice.

1826. Suppression of the Janizaries.

The Janizaries (yeni-tsheri), meaning new troops, were Turkish foot-soldiers originally organized by Sultan Orchan about 1330 A.D. They were recruited from among the conquered Christian nations by taking their strongest and most promising boys and educating them in the Mohammedan faith and in the arts of war. Torn from their homes and cut off from every domestic tie, these boys knew only the religion and the service into which they were forced. They were very carefully trained and were granted a great many privileges, and naturally became a formidable means of defence. The lowest officer of the corps was their cook, for whom the Janizaries manifested great reverence. They always wore a wooden spoon in their turbans, and on all extra occasions assembled around their soup-kettles. Their revolts were

proclaimed by reversing these kettles. The loss of one of these kettles in battle was as great a disgrace as the loss of its colors by a regiment in civilized armies.

During the reign of Soliman the Magnificent the Janizaries were without doubt the best disciplined body of troops in Europe. After his death they were no longer recruited exclusively from young Christian prisoners of war or from among the tributary Christian provinces, until the corps finally consisted in great measure of vagabond Turks and Christians, who often engaged in bloody strife among themselves. They mutinied against the sultans time after time, and more than once deposed and put to death the Turkish rulers.

When Mahmoud II. came to the Turkish throne in 1808, he was impressed with the danger of maintaining such turbulent and unruly troops, and he resolved upon their extermination. Having gained over the Mohammedan priesthood and some of his officers to his views, he published a decree in 1826 ordering that one hundred and fifty of every regiment of the Janizaries should be formed into a regularly disciplined militia. As was expected, this decree caused a revolt. The Janizaries assembled and reversed their kettles. But Mahmoud displayed the standard of Mohammed,—the sacred emblem which was never brought out except in seasons of great danger,—and, roused to fanatic zeal, all the better class of the population, with many sailors and private guards, fell upon the Janizaries, burned them in their barracks or massacred them in the streets. About twenty-five thousand were thus destroyed. The rest were exiled. Since then they have never been re-organized.

1827. Battle of Navarino. Greek Independence.

Greece was a part of the Turkish empire for nearly four hundred years. The rule of the Turk in Greece, as in every place where he has

dominion, was unjust and oppressive, and in 1820 the Greeks revolted and began a struggle for independence. The first outbreak, led by Alexander Ypsilanti in the northern provinces, terminated disastrously, but fresh insurrections occurred all over the country soon afterwards, and the Turks practised the greatest barbarities in their efforts to suppress the movement. Marco Bozzaris, one of the most famous of the Greek chieftains,—sometimes called the “Leonidas of Modern Greece,”—was killed in 1823 while making a midnight assault upon the Turkish camp near Missolonghi, one of the chief towns in insurrection. The battle resulted in a decisive victory of the Greeks, who had the advantage in the struggle until 1825, when the sultan asked and obtained aid from Egypt. Missolonghi was taken by the Turks and Egyptians in 1826 after a long siege, the brave defenders having suffered the most dreadful hardships from famine and the barbarities of the besiegers.

The fall of Missolonghi aroused the sympathy of European nations for the struggling Greeks; and England, France, and Russia, recognizing the independence of Greece, sent their fleets to her assistance. The Turkish and Egyptian fleets were encountered in the Bay of Navarino, and there a great battle was fought, resulting in the destruction of the Turco-Egyptian squadron (1827). This victory delivered Greece from her oppressors. A republic was founded, but this was soon transformed into a kingdom by the allied powers. The independence of Greece was acknowledged by the Ottoman Porte* in 1829.

1830. Death of George IV. Accession of William IV.

George IV. became king of Great Britain in 1820, at the age of fifty-eight. He was a man

of polished manners and exquisite taste in dress, and was called by his flatterers “the first gentleman in Europe;” but he was unprincipled, profligate, and heartless, and treated his wife, Caroline of Brunswick, with the most shameful cruelty and neglect. George was very fastidious, and the slovenly habits and indiscreet actions of his wife were exceedingly distasteful to him, but they were no excuse for his shamefully profligate life. From the first hours of their marriage, which took place long before George became king, he ill-treated his wife, and in a short time they separated, Queen Caroline going abroad to live. When he succeeded to the throne on the death of his father, Caroline returned to England to claim the honors due a queen, but the king threw every possible obstacle in her way, and took steps to obtain a divorce. Queen Caroline was ably defended by Lord Brougham, and the divorce was not granted, to the great joy of the people, who believed the queen innocent of the accusations made against her.

When George IV. was crowned the following year, he would neither consent to Caroline's demand to be crowned queen-consort nor permit her to witness his coronation. This broke her heart, and in a few weeks after the ceremony she died.

The most important political event of this reign was the passage of the Emancipation Bill in 1829, by which the Catholics were placed on the same political footing as the Protestant subjects of the crown. The success of this bill was chiefly due to the efforts of the eloquent Irish orator Daniel O'Connell.

During this reign Captains Parry and Ross explored the Arctic seas in a vain search for a northwest passage to India.

George IV. died in 1830, leaving no children. He was succeeded by his brother, William IV., sometimes called the “Sailor King,” because he had spent his younger days in the navy.

* The name usually applied to the Turkish government.

1830. Abdication of Charles X. Second French Revolution.

Louis XVIII. died in 1824, and was succeeded by his brother, Charles X. This king, like all his Bourbon kindred, thirsted for absolute power, and his government became every year more unpopular. At last he altered the law of elections and suspended the liberty of the press. This was more than the people could endure, and they rose in insurrection (1830). The streets of Paris were barricaded, the soldiers sent by the king to overawe the mob were dispersed or induced to join the insurgents, and in three days the city was completely in the hands of the people. The insurrection now became a revolution. A meeting was held for the purpose of organizing a new government. Some clamored for a republic, but a constitutional monarchy was finally agreed upon. General La Fayette, who took a prominent part in these proceedings, was appointed commander of the National Guards.

Awaking at last to a sense of his danger, Charles attempted to make concessions, but a cry was heard, "It is too late!" and he was compelled to abdicate and hide his disappointment in foreign lands. A few days later Louis Philippe, Duke of Orleans, having sworn to maintain the constitutional charter, was elected king of the French.

1831. Dom Pedro II.

When Napoleon attempted to add Portugal to his list of conquests in 1807, the reigning king, John VI., sought refuge in the Portuguese colony of Brazil. After the fall of Napoleon, Brazil was raised to the rank of a kingdom (1815), and a few years later John returned to Portugal, leaving his son Dom Pedro to act as regent of Brazil. John had scarcely gone when a revolution broke out. Brazil was declared an independent empire and Dom Pedro

was crowned emperor. Yielding too much to Portuguese influence, Dom Pedro became very unpopular with the Brazilians, and in 1831 he abdicated in favor of his son, Dom Pedro II., then a child of five years. A regency administered the government until 1840, when Dom Pedro II., although but fourteen years old, began his career as emperor. Dom Pedro II. was an intelligent and enterprising monarch. Under his progressive rule railways were built and various other internal improvements were carried on. In 1871 he made a tour of the United States and European countries to observe their various governments, institutions, and industries. Although the proudest blood of European sovereigns courses through his veins—his father was a Braganza, his mother a Hapsburg—he was always liberal and a friend of the people. He continually encouraged the growth of republican ideas. Under his wise government Brazil made rapid strides towards the advanced civilization of North America.*

1832. Sir Walter Scott.

Sir Walter Scott, poet and novelist, was born in Edinburgh in 1771. He was educated at the university of that city, but gained no distinction as a student while at college. He was, however, an indefatigable reader of romances, old plays, poetry, travels, and whatever miscellaneous literature came within his reach. After leaving college he studied law and entered the Scottish bar. He had long entertained a desire to be a poet and a writer of romances, and he now found opportunity for his favorite literary recreations. In 1805 he published "The Lay

* In November, 1889, a revolution took place in Brazil, the emperor, Dom Pedro II., was deposed, and a republican form of government was instituted with Señor da Fonseca as president. This revolution was remarkable in that it was accomplished with the greatest despatch and almost without violence.

Brazil was the last independent monarchy on the American continent.

of the Last Minstrel," a romantic poem of border chivalry, which was received with enthusiasm, and Scott was enrolled among the foremost poets of the day. He now devoted himself exclusively to literature, writing a number of poems, among which "Marmion" and "The Lady of the Lake" are the most popular.

About this time Byron's great fame as a poet warned Scott to seek literary success in other paths. He resolved by way of experiment to complete a novel he had begun some years before, but had put aside in consequence of the unfavorable criticism of a literary friend. In three weeks the book was finished, and in July, 1814, it appeared anonymously under the title of "Waverley." The experiment succeeded beyond the author's expectations, and, encouraged by the success of this novel, Scott wrote in similar style "Guy Mannering," "The Antiquary," "Rob Roy," "The Bride of Lammermoor," and a number of other novels, which were received with great delight by the literary public. It gradually became known that Scott was the author of all these works, and his home at Abbotsford, which he had purchased in 1811, became the resort of visitors of every rank. He received all with the unstudied simplicity of manner which made him the most delightful of companions. His mornings until eleven o'clock were devoted to composition, and the rest of the day to the improvement of his grounds or the entertainment of his guests and family. Although lame from his infancy, Scott was an indefatigable walker and rider. His winters were passed in Edinburgh.

In 1820 the title of baronet was conferred upon him by George IV. In 1826 the failure of two publishing houses which printed Scott's works and in one of which he was a partner involved him in debt to the amount of seven hundred and fifty thousand dollars. He was compelled to give up his house in Edinburgh, and most of his available means were devoted to the liquidation of this immense debt. For several

years he worked diligently with his pen to reimburse his fortunes, until both brain and body gave out and symptoms of paralysis began to appear. Hoping to be restored to health he went to Italy, but his strength continued to fail, and after a few months he requested to be taken to his native country, that he might die in sight and sound of the Tweed. He reached Abbotsford in a state of insensibility, and after reviving a few moments in the presence of familiar scenes and faces, he relapsed again into unconsciousness, and so passed away (1832). He was buried in Dryburgh Abbey, which had belonged to one of his ancestors.

By dint of his extraordinary exertions Scott had paid, up to the time of his death, upward of five hundred thousand dollars of his debts. The liberal advances of his publisher satisfied all the remaining claims of his creditors.

Scott's popularity as a novelist is still undiminished. The historical tendency which he gave to imaginative literature has led to important results in other fields of literary labor.

1832. Goethe.

Johann Wolfgang von Goethe, the most illustrious German writer of the nineteenth century, was born at Frankfort-on-the-Main in 1749. His early studies were conducted at home under his father's superintendence. Goethe was a precocious child. Before he was ten years old he wrote several languages, including French, Latin, and Greek, invented stories, and was moderately familiar with works of art. At sixteen he went to Leipsic to commence his collegiate course. Here he mastered with an easy grace law, medicine, logic, philosophy, and all the manifold sciences and arts of a German university. After an interval of sickness at home, during which he commenced the study of chemistry, the effect of which is seen in "Faust," he went to the University of Strasburg to complete his law studies at the wish of his father. In

one year Goethe earned his degree of Doctor of Laws and left the university, but it was evident that law was not to be Goethe's vocation.

In 1774 he published "The Sorrows of Young Werther." The most distinguished literary men praised it as a profoundly philosophical romance, while the masses were carried away by its eloquence and pathos. The fame acquired by "Werther" brought Goethe under the notice of Charles Augustus, the Grand Duke of Saxe-Weimar, and in 1775 Goethe was invited to spend a few weeks at his court. A strong friendship sprang up between the prince and the poet, and Goethe thereafter made Weimar his home. In the circle of literary notables at the duke's court Goethe at once became the presiding deity.

In 1786 Goethe went to Italy, where he spent two years in the study of its antiquities and arts. On his return he published "Egmont," a romantic drama, founded upon the revolution in the Netherlands in the sixteenth century.

Goethe first became acquainted with Schiller in 1794. Schiller's influence upon Goethe was both stimulating and ennobling, and from this time forth Goethe produced his grandest works. "Faust," the great work of his life, was published in 1805. This most profound, touching, and wonderful drama raised Goethe to the highest pinnacle of fame, and he was universally acknowledged to be the first poet of his age. In 1831 a second part to "Faust" appeared, but it was vastly inferior to the first.

Goethe died in 1832, at the advanced age of eighty-two. His works embrace almost every department of literature. They have exercised an immense influence not only in Germany but over the entire civilized world.

1837. Death of William IV. Accession of Victoria.

William IV. succeeded his brother, George IV., upon the throne of Great Britain in 1830.

The greatest event of his reign was the passage of the Reform Bill in 1832. The object of this bill was to extend the right of suffrage and make a new and fairer distribution of representatives in the House of Commons. Previous to this time wretched little villages, called "rotten boroughs," with scarcely any inhabitants, had been allowed to send members to Parliament, while such places as Birmingham and Manchester, which had risen within a century to the rank of first-class cities, had no representation. The Reform Bill was fiercely opposed, especially in the House of Lords, but the people were bent on having their rights, and at last the bill became a law.

The other great event of this reign was the emancipation of the slaves throughout the British colonies. As far back as 1787 William Wilberforce began to agitate the subject of abolishing negro slavery, but the victory was not to be easily won. Year after year it was debated in Parliament, meeting great opposition from slave-owners and merchants, and after twenty years' fighting Parliament decreed that the British trade in slaves should cease. But this was only half the victory. The friends of freedom struggled on, and at last in 1833, the very year in which Wilberforce died, Parliament passed an act abolishing slavery throughout all the British colonies. Eight hundred thousand human beings were thus set free. The planters received one hundred million dollars as compensation for the loss of their slaves.

William IV. died in 1837. He was neither brilliant nor wise, but he was endowed with remarkable common sense. His cordial manners and warm heart and the beneficent laws made during his reign have endeared his memory to the English people.

William's children had died in infancy, and he was succeeded by his niece, daughter of the Duke of Kent, Alexandrina Victoria, who still lives, beloved by her subjects and honored by all the world.

1844. Morse and the Telegraph.

Samuel Finley B. Morse, the inventor of the magnetic telegraph, was born in Charlestown, Massachusetts, in 1791. His father was a distinguished clergyman of the Congregational Church. Finley Morse was educated at Yale College. The study of natural philosophy and chemistry was especially interesting to him, and the lectures of Professors Silliman and Day undoubtedly sowed in Morse's mind the seed that eventually ripened into the invention of the telegraph. Morse had a natural fondness for drawing. While at college, although he had never had any instruction in the art, he sketched the likenesses of his college chums so correctly as to create astonishment among his friends. His father had given him a liberal education, intending him to choose one of the learned professions, but fondness for art had become an absorbing passion, and when Finley Morse graduated his sole ambition was to become a painter. His father, a man of broad and generous views, yielded to Finley's desire, and we next find the youth studying art under Washington Allston.

With Allston, Morse soon went abroad. This was in 1811, just before the outbreak of the war between England and the United States. There was, of course, a great deal of excitement in England, and not a little ill-feeling towards Americans. Morse writes in his journal, "At Liverpool, after landing, I went to the mayor to get leave to go to London. He gave me ten days to get there, and told me if he found me in Liverpool after that time he should put me in prison." Morse could not but smile at the unwarrantable severity of the threat, and he adds that the mayor's name was Drinkwater, but, judging from the looks of his face, he (Morse) thought it might be Drink-brandy.

Morse spent two years in London studying under the famous Benjamin West. He made rapid progress. In 1813 he exhibited at the Royal Academy a painting called the "Dying

Hercules," which was considered one of the best twelve in a collection of nearly two thousand pictures. He remained in London pursuing his art studies until 1816. On returning home and not receiving orders for work immediately, he turned his mind into almost forgotten channels. With the assistance of his brother Sidney he invented a forcing-pump for stationary engines. His old fondness for science reawakened, Morse now produced various mechanical appliances, among them a fire-engine. In the mean while the practice of his art gained him a modest living. In 1818 he was married to Miss Walker, of Concord. From that time until 1825 he devoted himself to his artistic profession. In the latter year his wife died suddenly. This was the great affliction of his early life. He had previously established himself in New York City, and there after the death of his wife he continued to follow his art. In 1826 he founded the Academy of Design. The following year we find him attending a course of lectures upon electro-magnetism at the Athenæum by Professor Dana. His interest in science—like Banquo's ghost—would not down, and he listened to the lectures and followed the experiments with the closest attention. Professor Dana knew all of the science of electro-magnetism that was then known to the world. His thoughts sank deeply into the inventive mind of Morse, and all unconsciously to himself formed the second step towards the great invention.

In 1829 Mr. Morse went abroad to study art in Italy. Three years he studied and painted, and then he turned his face once more towards his native land, intending to continue his chosen profession. But on the memorable voyage homeward in 1832 "a vision broke upon him which produced a revolution in his life and on the commerce and intercourse of mankind." On ship-board the conversation of the passengers turned naturally into the line of recent discoveries in electro-magnetism. At the dinner-table

one day some one asked the question, "Is the velocity of electricity retarded by the length of the wire?" Another replied that "in all experiments made no difference in time had been observed between the touch at one extremity and the spark at the other." Mr. Morse, who had been an attentive listener, now remarked, "If the presence of electricity can be made visible in any part of the circuit, I see no reason why intelligence may not be transmitted instantaneously by electricity." The words had scarcely fallen from his lips when the thought they conveyed seemed to fill his mind with a sudden light. The conversation went on, but Morse sat and pondered on his own words. Gradually their meaning became plainer to his mental vision, and gradually the new idea took complete possession of his mind. Signals had transmitted intelligence at a distance. But this was not his conception. He would not only *transmit* intelligence but he would *record* it at a distance. That would be a telegraph,—tele, "far off;" grapho, "I write." After several sleepless nights passed in elaborating in his mind his wonderful discovery and in making drawings of the instrument he would use in the transmission of intelligence, Morse presented these drawings at the breakfast-table and explained the process by which he proposed to accomplish it. So perfectly had he grasped the idea and worked out the details that there was scarcely any alteration required in his telegraph instrument when it came to a practical test.

When he reached New York he was met by his brothers, to whom he immediately imparted the news of his invention. And now began a struggle that lasted twelve long years. Art as a profession he could not follow with the idea of the telegraph the one absorbing thought of his being. But he was poor,—his motherless children weighed upon his heart,—and listening to the call of duty he maintained himself and little ones several years by his brush. At length his

brothers erected a new building for the newspaper of which they were the editors. In this building they gave Morse a room for a workshop. There he worked and lived until he had fashioned the first rude telegraph instrument. In 1835 Mr. Morse was appointed Professor of the Literature of the Arts of Design in the City University. Although most of his time was given to his art pupils, his leisure moments were spent upon his telegraph apparatus,—improving it and experimenting with it. Among the students at the university who witnessed the experiments with the telegraph was a Mr. Alfred Vail, who immediately took a great interest in the invention. Mr. Vail's father, proprietor of large iron and brass works, also became interested, and offered to furnish the necessary means to bring the telegraph creditably before the public. A number of successful experiments followed in New York, and then Professor Morse took his invention to Washington. Congress was asked for an appropriation of thirty thousand dollars to build an experimental line. While waiting for action on the part of Congress, Professor Morse went to England to secure a patent on his invention. Failing in this because of Wheatstone's invention, he went to France, where he was promptly given a patent. Returning to America, Professor Morse found to his chagrin that Congress had not granted the desired appropriation. Morse was in despair. He was about to carry his perfected apparatus once more to Washington when Congress adjourned, and another year of suspense began. The Commissioner of Patents, Hon. H. L. Ellsworth, had meanwhile become one of the most earnest supporters of the new invention, and when Professor Morse came to Washington in 1843 to entreat Congress to pass the appropriation bill, he received much encouragement from Mr. Ellsworth in this dark and trying time. The session wore along when, on the 23d of February, the Telegraph Bill was reached and passed by the House. Then it went to the

Senate. But there was a great amount of business before the Senate, and the last day of the session came and the bill was not yet touched. Professor Morse sat in the gallery of the Senate chamber with a heart filled with intense anxiety. Evening came. His friends assured him that his bill could not possibly be reached, and he retired to his hotel well-nigh crushed. Early the next morning a caller was announced. It was Miss Ellsworth, the daughter of the Commissioner.

"I have come to congratulate you," she said.

"For what?" said Mr. Morse.

"On the passage of your bill," replied Miss Ellsworth.

In the expiring moments of the session the bill had been reached and passed without opposition. Mr. Morse was too overcome with joy to speak for a few moments. Then he said,—

"Miss Ellsworth, you shall send the first message over the line."

The appropriation having been granted, Professor Morse set to work with delight to construct a line from Washington to Baltimore. It was completed in May, 1844, and on the 24th the first message was sent over the line to Baltimore by Miss Ellsworth,—“What hath God wrought!”

The electric telegraph was an accomplished fact.

1848. War between Mexico and the United States.

The annexation of Texas, formerly a province of Mexico, to the United States gave rise to boundary disputes between Mexico and the United States, and in 1845 war was declared between the two countries. The Neuces River was claimed by Mexico as the boundary-line between that country and Texas, while Texas claimed the region extending all the way to the Rio Grande. As a precautionary measure General Zachary Taylor was sent by the United States government to Texas before hostilities

actually broke out. In the spring of 1846 he moved his army to the Rio Grande and built a fort opposite Matamoras. The Mexicans ordered him to retire. Taylor promptly refused, and the war began. Ten important battles were fought during this war, in every one of which the Americans were victorious.

After the brilliant victory of Buena Vista in 1847 General Taylor returned to the United States, and General Winfield Scott went to Mexico to superintend the campaign. Scott bombarded and took Vera Cruz, the key to the country, and then advanced upon the Mexican capital. Santa Anna, the Mexican commander, threw a large body of troops into the mountain-passes of Cerro Gordo to dispute Scott's progress, declaring, with great bravado, “I will die fighting rather than the Americans shall proudly tread the imperial city of the Aztecs.” His position seemed impregnable, but the Americans, cutting a new path through the forest at the base of the mountain, drew up their cannon with ropes and placed them on the heights overlooking the enemy's works. The Mexicans were thus forced to abandon their position, and the boastful Santa Anna fled so precipitately that he left behind him his private papers and his wooden leg! Scott continued his march, and his victorious army swept down into the fertile valley of Mexico. One by one the forts guarding the approaches to the city were taken, and on the 14th of September, 1847, the Americans made a triumphal entry into the city of Mexico. The capture of Mexico brought the war to a close. Peace was signed at Guadalupe Hidalgo in February, 1848. The Rio Grande was determined upon as the boundary between Mexico and the United States, and New Mexico and California were ceded to the United States for fifteen million dollars.

Many of the officers who figured prominently in the Civil War of 1861—Grant, McClellan, Sherman, Beauregard, Lee, and others—received their first military experience in this war.

1848. Abdication of Louis Philippe. Third French Revolution.

Louis Philippe, who ascended to the French throne in 1830, at the outbreak of the second French revolution, soon became very unpopular. Not profiting by the experience of his predecessor, he persistently set himself in opposition to the reforms demanded by the nation. Several attempts were made to assassinate him. After the death of his son, who possessed the confidence of the people, murmurs grew loud and deep against the corruptions of the government. The crisis came in 1848. A reform banquet was announced to take place on the 22d of February, the birthday of the great American patriot. The French ministry taking alarm prohibited the banquet. The next day crowds gathered in the streets of Paris, the troops were overpowered, and with the shout "A republic!" the throng swept to the Tuileries and made a bonfire of the throne and royal carriages. Louis Philippe hurriedly abdicated and sought safety in England.

A provisional government was instituted, but, not meeting the expectations of the lower orders, the streets were once more filled with swarms of Communists, and cries of "Down with the government!" were heard on all sides. Efforts were now made by the Red Republicans to renew the horrors of the great revolution, but General Cavaignac and his troops, after a desperate conflict of five days with the mob, restored order and law. A republic was then formed, and Louis Napoleon, nephew of the great Napoleon, and member of the National Assembly, was elected president.

1851. Tennyson, the Poet-laureate of England.

Alfred Tennyson was born in Lincolnshire, England, in 1809. His father, Dr. George Tennyson, was a clergyman. Alfred was educated

at Cambridge, where, in 1829, he received a medal for a prize poem in blank verse entitled "Timbuctoo." He was still an undergraduate at college when he published in 1830 a volume called "Poems, chiefly Lyrical." It made little impression upon the public. His second volume, in 1833, containing besides several poems from the first a number of new ones, "The May Queen," "The Palace of Art," "A Dream of Fair Women," "The Lotos Eaters," and others, extended the yet small circle of his admirers.

In the main, his second collection was severely noticed by the critics, and for nine years he remained silent. He then published some of the most admirable illustrations of his power, among them "Morte d'Arthur," "Locksley Hall," "Dora," and "Ulysses." In 1850 appeared the poems of "In Memoriam," designed to express the feelings caused by the death of his most intimate friend, Arthur Henry Hallam. The volume contains one hundred and twenty-nine short poems replete with wisdom and beauty.

In 1851 Tennyson was appointed poet-laureate after the death of Wordsworth, his gifted predecessor. The custom of crowning with laurel the poets successful in a musical contest originated with the Greeks, and from them the practice was adopted by the Romans. It was revived in the twelfth century by the emperors of Germany, by whom the title of poet-laureate—*i.e.*, a poet officially crowned with laurel—was invented.

The early history of the laureateship in England is traditional. The common story is that Edward III. in 1367 granted the office to Geoffrey Chaucer, with a yearly pension of one hundred marks and a tierce of Malvoisie wine. The laureateship was not regularly established until the reign of James I. At first the poet-laureate was expected to write a poem on all public events connected with the court, such as a birth or a marriage in the royal family. Since Southey's time, however, they have written at their own

discretion. Wordsworth wrote nothing in return for the distinction, and Tennyson has written but little.

1855. Siege of Sebastopol. (Crimean War.)

The hereditary ambition of Russia is the absorption of Turkey, and with it the possession of Constantinople and the Bosphorus. In this way alone can Russia hope to become a great maritime power. "I must have the key that unlocks the door of my house," said the czar, Alexander I., to Napoleon at Tilsit when they coolly made their secret agreement to divide Europe and the world between them. But this one point Napoleon would not yield. "Constantinople!" said he. "Never! It is the empire of the world!"

After the death of Alexander, Nicholas I., cherishing the favorite scheme of his predecessor, demanded of the sultan to be named Protector of the Greek Christians throughout Turkey. England, ever watchful of her great rival, Russia, advised the Turks not to entertain the czar's arrogant proposal. Nicholas then seized the Turkish provinces of Moldavia and Wallachia. This forced the Turks to declare war against Russia, and in 1853 the so-called Crimean War began.

To prevent the dismemberment of Turkey and to preserve the balance of power in Europe England and France soon joined Turkey in the war, and sent their fleets to the Black Sea. After many councils of war, the allies decided to invade the Crimean peninsula and attack the great Russian fortress of Sebastopol.

In September, 1854, the English, French, and Turkish armies landed near Eupatoria, four or five days' march from Sebastopol. A Russian army met them at the Alma River and a terrific battle was fought, but the Russians were at length dispersed and the allies pushed southward and invested Sebastopol. The siege began on the 17th of October. Eight days after, thirty

thousand Russians sallied forth from Sebastopol to attack the enemy at the port of Balaklava, where were the British ships and stores. The Russians, coming on with the early dawn, attacked and carried the redoubts of the Turks, but the British cavalry came up, and after a brilliant encounter the Russians were driven back. Seven guns taken in the redoubts still remained in their possession. Lord Raglan, the British commander-in-chief, sent an order to prevent the Russians from carrying off these guns if possible. The message was wrongly interpreted as an order to charge, and the Light Brigade of six hundred men dashed forward in the face of the whole Russian army. In the twenty minutes occupied by the charge and the return four hundred of that daring band were killed or wounded. "The Charge of the Light Brigade" will ever be remembered as an example of undaunted heroism, and a proof that at the call of duty a British soldier never pauses to count the odds against him.

On the 5th of November the Russians made another attack upon the allies on the plateau of Inkermann. But again they were driven back, leaving behind them one of the bloodiest fields ever beheld by a soldier. After this the fighting before Sebastopol consisted only of sorties from the place and attacks upon the besiegers in the trenches. But perils more fatal than Russian shot and shell began to deal havoc among the allies. Bad food, want of clothing, shelter, and medical care terribly thinned the ranks. A severe winter set in. Tents were torn from their pegs by a hurricane of wind and blown into the air. Horses and mules died of cold and starvation. Cholera raged among the men. The hospitals were wretchedly organized—or disorganized—and the most extraordinary instances of blunder and confusion were constantly occurring. Great consignments of boots arrived and were found to be all for the left foot! Mules for the conveyance of stores were contracted for, and by some unaccountable blunder were deliv-

ered into the hands of the Russians! Stores of medicine and strengthening food were left to decay at Varna. Ships containing clothing for the troops were wrecked at Balaklava by a tremendous storm. At last Miss Florence Nightingale, an English lady, who had studied nursing as a science, came out to the Crimea with a corps of trained nurses, who devoted themselves to the care of the sick and wounded, and from the time of their arrival there was at least one department of the war which was conducted with system and was never again the subject of complaint.

The siege of Sebastopol meanwhile dragged heavily along. Indeed, for some months the allies were almost wholly inactive, their own sufferings occupying their attention. In the spring of 1855 the Emperor Nicholas* died, broken-hearted at the Russian reverses. About the same time the King of Sardinia sent an army to the Crimea to support the allies, and the siege began to be more vigorously prosecuted. In August the Russians made a desperate effort to raise the siege by an attack upon the French and Sardinians, but they were again defeated, and the besiegers drew their lines nearer and nearer to the city. At length, on the 5th of September, the allies stormed the Malakoff and the Redan, the chief of the Russian batteries. The Malakoff was taken, and the French flag was soon floating from the parapets. The English had retired from the attack upon the Redan, determined to renew it the next morning. But during the night Gortschakoff, the Russian commander, knowing that it would be impossible to hold out much longer, exploded the magazines, set fire to the city, and withdrew his troops. The allies took

possession and completed the dismantling of the great fortress of Southern Russia, which to this day is but a heap of ruins.

The fall of Sebastopol virtually ended the war. A treaty, at this date obsolete, was concluded at Paris in 1856, according to which no ships of war were to be allowed upon the Black Sea. This was a great blow to Russia, for it dispelled her hopes of becoming a great maritime power.

1858. The Indian Mutiny.

The Indian mutiny, or Sepoy rebellion, broke out at Meerut, near Delhi, India, on the 10th of May, 1857. There is no doubt that a conspiracy for the destruction of the English had been spreading through the north of India for some time previous to the outbreak, but the immediate cause was the introduction of the Enfield rifle, in which greased cartridges were used. The Sepoys, or native soldiers in the British army, not being allowed by their religion to touch animal food, believed that by biting off the ends of the cartridges they would lose their caste and be compelled to become Christians!

It happened, unfortunately, that there were at this time only a few hundred European soldiers in all Northern India. On the 9th of May, 1857, a band of Sepoys at Meerut were imprisoned for refusing to use the new cartridges. The next evening all the native troops rose in mutiny, murdered their English officers in cold blood, and released the prisoners. The mutineers then fled to Delhi, massacred all the Europeans they could find, and took possession of the city. With frightful rapidity the insurrection spread. At Cawnpore the English residents took refuge in a hastily-constructed fort, but when induced to surrender on promise of being protected they were all treacherously murdered by Nana Sahib, and the mutilated bodies of the ladies and children—nearly two hundred in number—were thrown in a quivering

* Nicholas was succeeded by his son, Alexander II. The emancipation of the serfs in 1861 was one of the most important events of Alexander's reign. In 1881 Alexander was assassinated by the Nihilists (a dangerous class of Russians, who believe in no form of government), and his son, Alexander III., now reigns in his stead.

heap into a well. At Lucknow, the little English garrison held out against the ferocious swarms of the enemy for three months, when General Havelock, who had arrived with a little English army from Persia just too late to save the residents of Cawnpore, came to their relief. With this accession of force the besieged held their ground until November, when Sir Colin Campbell with five thousand Highlanders fought his way inch by inch and rescued the place. Meantime, Delhi had been retaken by the British under Sir John Lawrence, and the old Mohammedan king, the last of the Grand Moguls, was taken prisoner.

The remorseless and fiendish cruelty of the mutineers beggars description, and the details of the massacres that took place all over the country are sickening in the extreme. Early in 1858 a large force of European troops reached India, and, led by Sir Colin Campbell, they followed the enemy night and day, and inflicted terrible retribution upon the murderers of their countrymen. By the close of the year 1858 the mutiny was practically subdued. The insurrection still continued in the province of Oude, but soon after the beginning of the year 1859 Oude was completely reduced and peace was proclaimed. The immediate result of the mutiny was that the government of India was transferred from the East India Company to the British crown.

1861. Commencement of the Civil War in the United States.

One of the main causes of the Civil War was African slavery, which had grown to be one of the chief institutions of the Southern States. In the early days of the republic slavery had existed in some of the Northern States, but it had never taken root there as at the South. In 1807 Congress passed an act making the importation of slaves into the United States from foreign countries illegal from that time; but

although public sentiment in the North was gradually forming in opposition to slavery, the public agitation of the subject did not begin until President Monroe's administration, when Missouri was admitted to the Union. Great efforts were made at various times to compromise between the pro-slavery and the anti-slavery factions, but the breach only widened, and in the Presidential canvass of 1860 the crisis came.

The Republican party, whose distinctive principle was opposition to the extension of slavery, selected Abraham Lincoln as their candidate for President. The Southern leaders declared that the election of a "sectional President," such as they considered Lincoln to be, would be a just cause for the dissolution of the Union. Southern statesmen had always held the doctrine of States rights,—*i.e.*, that the Union was only a voluntary association, which could be dissolved at pleasure. When, therefore, after an exciting canvass, the election of Mr. Lincoln was announced, a convention met in December, 1860, at Charleston, South Carolina, and passed an ordinance of secession. The example of South Carolina was rapidly followed by other Southern States, and by the middle of the year 1861 Mississippi, Florida, Alabama, Georgia, Louisiana, Texas, Virginia, North Carolina, and Tennessee had all seceded from the Union. In February, 1861, delegates from the six States then in secession met at Montgomery, Alabama, and organized a new government under the name of the Confederate States of America. Jefferson Davis was chosen President and Alexander Stephens Vice-President. The Confederate authorities immediately seized all the forts, arsenals, and other United States property within the seceded States excepting Forts Pickens and Sumter, which were still held by United States troops.

In his inaugural address Mr. Lincoln said that "he had no purpose to interfere with slavery where it existed, for in his opinion he had no

right to do so." But he denied the right of secession, and said that "he was determined to enforce the laws and repossess the posts that had been seized by the insurgents."

Meanwhile, General Beauregard was ordered by the Confederate authorities to secure possession of Fort Sumter in Charleston harbor. On the 12th of April, 1861, Beauregard opened fire upon the fort, and, after a bombardment of thirty-four hours, Major Anderson and his little garrison of sixty-four men were compelled to surrender.

The fall of Fort Sumter produced an almost uncontrollable excitement throughout the country, and at the President's call for seventy-five thousand men three hundred thousand volunteers enrolled themselves for the defence of the Union.

1861. The United Kingdom of Italy.

During the Middle Ages, and indeed until a very recent period in modern times, Italy consisted of a number of small states, some of which were republics, others independent petty monarchies, while others were under the supreme control of the emperors of Germany and Austria.

From 1805 to 1814 Napoleon I. held sway over the greater part of Italy. After the downfall of Napoleon a spirit of nationality began to develop in Italy. This desire of the Italian patriots to unite the states of Italy led to a series of revolutionary outbreaks against their Austrian oppressors and the petty princes who were upheld by the arms and policy of Austria.

The first war, properly so called, for Italian independence began in 1848, when Charles Albert, King of Sardinia, took up arms against Austria. This campaign proved unsuccessful, and in 1849 Charles Albert abdicated in favor of his son, Victor Emmanuel II. The honesty of this young king and his fidelity to the constitutional liberty granted by his father to his little

kingdom endeared him to the hearts of all the Italian people, who came to look upon him as their leader and the one who was to release them from the thralldom of Austrian oppression.

The cause of Italian liberty was greatly advanced by Count Cavour, an Italian statesman and a member of Victor Emmanuel's cabinet, and by the patriotic Garibaldi, who led the army of the Sardinian king.

In 1859 war was resumed between Austria and Sardinia. France came to the help of the little Italian state, and by the great battles of Magenta and Solferino drove the Austrians from Italian soil.

A Bourbon king, Francis II., reigned over Naples and Sicily. In the name of Victor Emmanuel II. Garibaldi invaded the dominions of the tyrant Francis in 1860. Having conquered Sicily, Garibaldi crossed to the main-land, compelled Francis to flee, and entered Naples amid the enthusiastic shouts of the people.

The result of these successes in Northern and Southern Italy was the formation of the United Kingdom of Italy under Victor Emmanuel as king* (1861). Venice, which still remained in the hands of Austria, and a small portion of the States of the Church were subsequently annexed to the United Kingdom of Italy, of which Rome is now the capital.

1863. Siege and Surrender of Vicksburg.

The chief event of the Civil War in the Southwest during the year 1863 was the surrender of Vicksburg. When the war broke out the Confederates had possession of the Mississippi River from the Ohio to the Gulf of Mexico. To recover this river, the main artery of trade through the Mississippi Valley, the United States government sent a large army

* Victor Emmanuel II. died in 1878 and was succeeded by his son, Humbert I., the reigning king.

to the Southwest. By the close of the year 1862 the Union forces had recovered all the important posts on the river except Vicksburg. The capture of this stronghold would open the river once more to navigation. General Grant, commander-in-chief in the Southwest, determined to have this prize. In December, 1862, he had sent General Sherman down from Memphis to make an attack, but the northern fortifications of the city proved so strong that Sherman gave up the attempt. When spring came Grant renewed the enterprise himself. It was evident that the attack must be made from the south of the city, but how to get the gunboats and soldiers below the eight miles of fortifications on the bluffs overlooking the river was the problem. Weeks were spent in beating about the bayous (swampy lakes) around Vicksburg in the hope of getting into the rear of the city, but in vain. All plans proving futile, Grant finally determined to march his army down the west bank of the river and run the fleet of gunboats and transports past the batteries. He would then bring his army over to the east side of the river and attack Vicksburg from below. It was a bold plan, difficult and dangerous, but there was one chance of success, and Grant was willing to take that "one chance."

The west bank of the river was a vast morass, and to make it possible for the soldiers to march, seventy miles of corduroy had to be built over this expanse of mud and water. When it was finished the army passed quietly and safely down below the city. But the most difficult part of the enterprise was to get the fleet past the city without detection. On the night of the 16th of April, under cover of thick darkness, the gunboats floated gently down-stream, but just as they were opposite the fortifications they were discovered. Instantly a tremendous fire was opened upon them, and the whole bluff was ablaze with the flashes of the guns. The fleet, fully prepared for this event, responded with a

furious cannonade, and succeeded in running the gauntlet unharmed. Three transports attempted to follow under cover of the smoke. Two passed safely by, the third was struck by a shell and set on fire. A few nights afterwards six more transports were sent down, five succeeding in the attempt to run the blockade. The fleet then ferried the army across to the east bank of the river at Bruinsburg, and Grant hastened northward. Having defeated General Johnston, who was advancing to the assistance of Pemberton at Vicksburg, Grant arrived on the 19th of May, and proceeded to invest the place. Two desperate but unsuccessful assaults were made upon the works and then a regular siege began. Shot and shell were hurled upon the fortifications daily from land and water, and to escape the iron storm the inhabitants of the city made caves in the clay hills on which Vicksburg stands, and there lived during the bombardment.

Forty-seven days the garrison held out, in the hope that Johnston would come to their relief. By that time provisions and ammunition were almost exhausted, Johnston had not put in an appearance, and Pemberton, seeing that Grant was making ready for another assault, proposed to surrender. On the 3d of July the two commanders met under an oak-tree between the lines to arrange the terms, and the next day, July 4, nearly thirty thousand men, the defenders of Vicksburg, became prisoners of war.

The surrender of Port Hudson, the last Confederate post on the river, followed in a few days, and the Mississippi was once more free to navigation.

1863. Battle of Gettysburg.

The Confederate cause was so generally successful during the first part of the year 1863 that General Lee, commander-in-chief of the Confederate Army of Virginia, determined to carry the war again into the North, notwithstanding

his disastrous invasion of Maryland the preceding year. Early in June he crossed the Potomac and advanced through Maryland into Southern Pennsylvania. The Army of the Potomac under General Meade followed closely, and Lee was forced to halt and concentrate his troops at Gettysburg. There the decisive battle of the campaign was fought. It began on the 1st of July and continued for three days. The first two days the Confederate forces had the advantage, and Lee, in hope of winning a decided victory, determined to continue the fight another day. About one o'clock on the afternoon of the 3d, having spent the forenoon in preparation, Lee suddenly opened fire upon Cemetery Ridge, the centre and key of the Federal position. For nearly two hours the air was alive with shells. The Union soldiers crouched behind the rocks and fortifications to await the charge they knew would follow. At last the cannonade lulled, and out from the woods swept a magnificent column of eighteen thousand men, the flower of the Confederate infantry. With disciplined steadiness they moved up the hill. The Federal guns tore great gaps in the front ranks, but the men closed up and moved sternly on. When within point-blank range, infantry volleys struck the line, and it literally melted away. But on came the second, resistless still. They reached the summit, bayoneted the gunners, and planted their flags upon the breastworks. But beyond the crest of the hill was a second and stronger line. Dashing on to charge this force, a storm of grape and canister from the guns on the western slope of the hill met the Confederate line and tore its way down the ranks, marking its bloody track with mutilated dead. The carnage was awful. The brave column gave way, the escaping fragments fell back over the fields, and the battle was over. Lee had staked all on this charge and had no heart to resume the battle. During the night of this fatal day he began his retreat, and nine days later crossed the Potomac.

In the three days' fight Lee lost over thirty thousand men, more than one-third of his army.

The battle of Gettysburg and the surrender of Vicksburg occurred simultaneously and marked a turning-point in the war. From that hour the fate of the Confederacy was sealed.

1863. The Emancipation Proclamation.

The Republican party in the Congress of the United States considered the emancipation of the slaves necessary to the suppression of the rebellion. The President, kind and forbearing, proposed to co-operate with any State government that might adopt measures for freeing its slaves, by giving pecuniary aid, but none of the States would listen to any such proposal. Congress then abolished slavery in the District of Columbia, over which it had control, and finally gave the President power to declare freedom to all slaves in the rebellious States.

Mr. Lincoln prepared a draft of the Emancipation Proclamation in July, 1862, but the Union forces were in the midst of reverses, and he put it aside to await a victory. Finally came Lee's invasion of Maryland, and Mr. Lincoln determined to wait no longer. He said afterwards, "I made a solemn vow before God that if General Lee was driven back from Maryland I would crown the result by the declaration of freedom to the slaves."

The disastrous battle of Antietam sent Lee back across the Potomac, and, while the people of the North were elated over this success, Mr. Lincoln announced, on the 22d of September, that, unless the Confederate soldiers laid down their arms within one hundred days, he would issue a proclamation freeing all the slaves in the insurgent States. The 1st of January, 1863, arrived, the war was still in progress, no heed had been paid to the President's announcement, and the Emancipation Proclamation went forth

declaring freedom to the slaves in all States and parts of States in insurrection.

Two years later Congress abolished slavery in all parts of the United States. Thus an institution which had lasted two hundred and forty-six years and had largely shaped the destiny of the New World came to an end.

1864. Fall of Atlanta and Sherman's March through Georgia.

In March, 1864, General Grant was appointed commander-in-chief of the armies of the United States. The strength of the Confederacy at this time lay in two places, Richmond, the Confederate capital, and Atlanta, the great railroad centre of the South, and the seat of her machine-shops and manufactories. Extensive preparations were at once set on foot for a campaign against these two places, which if successful would bring the war to a close.

General Sherman was appointed to conduct the campaign against Atlanta. Early in May, 1864, he set out from Chattanooga with nearly one hundred thousand men. General Johnston, in command of the Confederate army in Georgia, retarded Sherman's advance as much as possible by skirmishes and skilfully-arranged retreats, the mountainous character of the country favoring such tactics. But Johnston was gradually forced on towards Atlanta. Failing to appreciate his "retreating policy," the Confederate authorities now took the command from Johnston and appointed General Hood in his place. As Sherman moved down upon Atlanta, Hood made three furious attacks upon the Union forces, but was repulsed every time. He then retired into Atlanta. Sherman spent four weeks carefully examining the formidable works around the city, but finding them too strong to assault, he marched his army to the rear of the place and seized the railroad. Hood discovered the movement and sent out a de-

tachment to save his line of supplies, but Sherman got between this body of troops and Atlanta, and thus cut the Confederate army in two. When Hood learned of this disaster he blew up the magazines and machine-shops and escaped from Atlanta, and on the 2d of September Sherman's army entered and took possession. Hood reunited his army and attempted to cut the Federal communications, but not succeeding he struck out for the Tennessee. Sending General Thomas to Tennessee to watch Hood's movements, Sherman now made preparations to march through Georgia to the sea. He destroyed the railroads and a large part of Atlanta, cut the telegraph-wires, and on the 16th of November, with his army of sixty thousand men, took up his line of march for the coast, nearly three hundred miles away. For three weeks nothing was heard at Washington of his whereabouts. The army moved in two columns over a track from twenty to sixty miles wide, foraging upon the country and destroying the railroads as they passed. Their path through the heart of the Confederacy was marked by trampled fields, deserted villages, and blackened ruins. As they neared Savannah General Hardee, the Confederate commander, despairing of a successful resistance, retired from the city. On the 21st of December Sherman's army entered in triumph.

In the mean time General Hood had advanced to Nashville. There he was met by General Thomas, and his army was annihilated. There remained but one great weapon to the Confederacy,—the army of Lee at Richmond.

1865. Surrender of Lee at Appomattox. Close of the Civil War.

In May, 1864, Grant and Meade, with an army of one hundred and thirty thousand men, began the campaign against Lee and the Confederate capital. The bloody battles of the Wilderness

and Spottsylvania followed, and Grant was then convinced that he could not reach Richmond from the north. He accordingly determined to cross the James River, seize Petersburg, twenty-two miles south of Richmond, and cut the railroads leading north from Petersburg to the Confederate capital. He sent forward a detachment to secure Petersburg, but Lee, discovering the movement, threw a large part of his army into the defences at Petersburg, and when Grant arrived the Confederates were secure behind their strong intrenchments. Four desperate attempts were made to carry the works, but without success. The end of June came, and still the Confederates were safe within their fortifications.

In the mean time some of Burnside's corps had been digging a mine under the works. On the 30th of July the mine was exploded, making a tremendous gap. It was the moment for an overwhelming charge. But the assaulting column was delayed; the Confederates rallied from their confusion, and when the charge was made it proved a disastrous failure and a fearful waste of life.

In September General Sheridan made a raid with his cavalry up the Shenandoah Valley. This brilliant campaign cost the Union forces nearly seventeen thousand men, but it stopped the incursions into Maryland and ended the war in the Shenandoah Valley.

During the winter of 1864-65 the contending armies remained comparatively quiet. In the latter part of February Sheridan swept down the Shenandoah Valley with ten thousand men and cut the railroad by which Richmond received a great part of her supplies. When spring came, while Sherman made his way northward to join the besieging army, Grant skilfully disposed his troops so as to encircle Petersburg and prevent Lee and his army from escaping. Lee's position was beginning to look desperate. He had only forty thousand men present on duty, and to meet Grant as he

stretched his line westward Lee was compelled to extend his intrenchments nearly forty miles, a necessity which greatly weakened the besieged by spreading out their forces. Lee saw that his only hope now lay in breaking through his environment. On the 25th of March he made an attempt to break the Federal line, but was unsuccessful, and General Meade, taking advantage of Lee's defeat, fell upon the Confederate picket lines and made a great many prisoners. On the 1st of April Sheridan shattered the right wing of Lee's army at Five Forks. The next day an attack was made along the entire line of works in front of Petersburg. The Confederates made a gallant defence, but the onset was irresistible, and they were finally driven into their inner line of intrenchments. Seeing that the end was near and that Petersburg could not hold out much longer, Lee telegraphed to Jefferson Davis at Richmond that the Confederate lines were broken in three places and that Richmond must be surrendered. These fatal tidings produced the wildest excitement at the capital. The streets were speedily filled with panic-stricken people hastening with their goods to leave the doomed city. A terrible conflagration which destroyed thirty blocks added to the horrors of the scene, while a lawless mob broke open the stores, strewed the sidewalks with costly fabrics, and reeled through the streets with their plunder. The Confederate government hurriedly left the city, and Lee with the wreck of his army slipped silently from the intrenchments at Petersburg by night and set out to join Johnston in North Carolina. When the Union pickets crept over the deserted intrenchments at daybreak, Lee was already sixteen miles away. The alarm was immediately given, and Grant ordered every available man and horse upon the chase. Sheridan's cavalry dashed ahead and got in front of the retreating army. Lee turned his course and made for the mountains. Four days and nights the race for life continued. Many of Lee's men dropped their

guns from utter exhaustion. They dare not lie down to rest, for at their heels thundered the remorseless enemy. Grant threw out his troops in all directions, and at last, finding himself completely surrounded, Lee surrendered at Appomattox on the 9th of April, 1865.

The surrender of Johnston's army followed shortly, and by the 26th of May all other Confederate troops had thrown down their arms. The Civil War was over.

1865. Assassination of President Lincoln.

While the American nation was filled with rejoicings at the close of the Civil War and the return of peace, there came the appalling news from Washington that President Lincoln had been assassinated.

On the evening of the 14th of April, Mr. Lincoln attended Ford's Theatre, and, while sitting in his box intent upon the play, John Wilkes Booth entered from behind and shot the President in the head. The assassin then endeavored to spring upon the stage, but catching his spurred heel in the flag draped in front of the box, he fell and broke his leg. In an instant he managed to regain his feet, and in the wild confusion and uproar he escaped behind the scenes. Mr. Lincoln fell forward unconscious. In that condition he was carried to a house opposite the theatre, where he died the following morning. His death plunged the nation into the deepest grief. On the 21st of April his remains left Washington, and, after lying in state in various large cities, were entombed with every honor at Springfield, Illinois.

Booth was afterwards tracked to a barn in Virginia, where he was shot in endeavoring to resist his arrest. His accomplices (for the assassination of the President was a part of a conspiracy to destroy the chief officers of the government) were tried and punished, some with death and the others with imprisonment.

1868. Abdication of Isabella II.

In 1830 Ferdinand VII. of Spain abolished the Salic law,* so that his infant daughter, Isabella, might succeed him. When Ferdinand died (1833) his brother, Don Carlos, asserted his claim to the throne, on the ground that Ferdinand had no right to abolish the Salic law. Civil war ensued. At the head of a formidable party, Carlos sustained the struggle until 1839, when, meeting with reverses, he fled to France.

When Isabella became old enough to assume the reins of government herself, she manifested a haughty and tyrannical disposition. The Spanish became greatly dissatisfied with her rule, and a series of revolutionary movements ensued. The disturbances culminated in a military insurrection led by General Prim in 1868. Queen Isabella was forced to abdicate, and a provisional government was established. A large party, headed by Emilio Castelar, desired a republic, but the friends of monarchy prevailed, and in 1870 the crown of Spain was offered to Prince Leopold of Hohenzollern. This offer led to momentous results.

1869. Central Pacific Railroad.

The year 1869 is memorable in the history of the United States for the completion of the Central Pacific Railroad. The entire country, from the Atlantic to the Pacific, was thus bound by an iron band, by means of which, in connection with the Pacific steamships, China, Japan, and India are easily and quickly reached, and the valuable productions of these far-off lands are brought into the great American markets.

The Central Pacific Railroad extends, properly speaking, from Sacramento, California, to Ogden, in Utah. The project of a Pacific railroad was first advocated by Asa Whitney as early as 1846. Surveys were made in 1853, but nothing further

* This was a law excluding female members of the royal family from the throne.

was accomplished. At length five Sacramento merchants became interested in the idea, and determined to build the road. They organized the Central Pacific Railroad Company, received assistance from Congress, and began work in 1862. Of all the railroad enterprises in the United States the Central Pacific is the most stupendous. All the material for the road, the iron, the spikes, the tools to dig, the powder to blast, the locomotives, cars, machinery, everything, had to be shipped from New York around Cape Horn to San Francisco, and then reshipped one hundred and twenty miles to Sacramento. Nearly four years were consumed in building the road over the Sierra Nevada Mountains alone. Long tunnels had to be drilled, and one spring snow sixty feet in depth had to be shovelled away from seven miles of the line to get at the road-bed. Water had to be hauled forty and wood twenty miles for the construction trains on the alkali plains. In spite of difficulties so great, the work went forward with rapidity, the track being laid at the rate of two or three miles per day, though one day in April, 1869, as the road neared completion, *ten* miles were laid. This day's work is probably the greatest feat of railroad-building on record. The most remarkable part of the story is that eight men did all the work. They walked ten miles and handled one thousand tons of rail bars apiece!

While the Central Pacific road was being built, the Union Pacific was extended westward from Omaha, and on the 10th of May, 1869, the last tie connecting the two lines was laid at Ogden with much ceremony. This tie was made of polished laurel-wood bound with silver bands. Three spikes were used,—a gold one presented by California, a silver one by Nevada, and a gold, silver, and iron one by Arizona.

When the junction of the roads was complete an invoice of tea was immediately shipped over the road from San Francisco, and the telegraph announced that the overland trade with China and Japan was inaugurated.

1870. Beginning of the Franco-Prussian War.

A trifling quarrel over the succession to the Spanish throne led to the great Franco-Prussian War. After the forced abdication of Queen Isabella, Spain remained for two years in an unsettled condition. The crown was then offered to Prince Leopold of Hohenzollern. Napoleon III. had already begun to fear the rising power of Prussia, and he imagined that the balance of power among the Continental nations would be disturbed if he had German neighbors both to right and left. He therefore demanded that King William of Prussia should compel Leopold to refuse the offered crown. King William promptly declined to interfere, on the ground that he had no right to exercise such authority over the prince, who was of age. Leopold of his own accord soon afterwards declined the proffered honor.

Not satisfied with this, the French next demanded that King William should guarantee that no German prince should in future be allowed to aspire to the Spanish throne. This was going a little too far. King William indignantly refused to listen to the French ambassador, Count Benedetti, when he pressed this insolent demand, and warned him that he would not be approached again upon this subject. The French were determined to pick a quarrel, and, seizing upon the fancied insult offered to Count Benedetti, and the refusal of King William to compel Leopold to withdraw from the candidacy to the throne of Spain, as pretexts for war, declared hostilities against Prussia, July 19, 1870.

1870. Battle of Sedan. Fall of Napoleon III.

As soon as France declared war against Prussia the armies of both nations advanced to the frontier. The Prussians certainly showed

as great eagerness to begin hostilities as the French. The war spirit was not confined to Prussia, but throughout the German states armies were organized and the most active preparations for war were carried forward.

In August, 1870, a Prussian army commanded by the crown prince, Frederick William, entered French territory and defeated the French troops under Marshal MacMahon at Woerth. While MacMahon retreated towards Nancy, another immense German army crossed the frontier and advanced with rapid strides to the investment of Metz, the strongest military post in Northeastern France. Marshal Bazaine, one of the French commanders, in attempting to form a junction with MacMahon was driven into Metz by the Prussians. Having received reinforcements, MacMahon, accompanied by the emperor, suddenly started from Châlons in the direction of Metz to assist Bazaine, but he was overtaken by the Prussians under the crown prince, and after a fierce battle his troops were forced back into Sedan. The 1st of September found the French so completely surrounded as to cut off all possibility of retreat. After twelve hours' terrific combat, in which MacMahon was wounded, the emperor, seeing the uselessness of prolonging the slaughter of his army, raised the white flag upon the citadel, and sent word to King William, who was with the Prussian armies, that the French would surrender. On the 2d of September articles of capitulation were agreed upon, and Napoleon III., Marshal MacMahon, and the French army of over one hundred thousand men became prisoners of war.

1871. Fall of Paris. Close of Franco-Prussian War.

The tidings of the great calamity at Sedan soon reached Paris and created intense excitement. The empire was overthrown and a provisional government formed by the democratic

populace of Paris, of which Jules Favre and Gambetta were the leading spirits. The German hosts, emboldened by their unvarying successes, advanced with rapid strides towards the doomed city, and by the middle of October (1870) the whole country around Paris was one grand camp. Gradually the lines of the beleaguering hosts drew nearer. Three times at the head of over one hundred thousand men General Trochu, governor of Paris, endeavored to cut his way through the coil of batteries and ramparts around the city. But the Germans invariably held or regained their positions. Armies were gathered in the French provinces for the relief of Paris, but they were overpowered by the Prussians. Day and night the siege was carried on with unceasing activity. Explosive bolts of iron over two hundred pounds in weight were thrown from the Prussian batteries and plunged down through the humblest roofs and the grandest domes in the heart of the metropolis, killing women and children, kindling conflagrations, destroying the most valuable works of art, and scattering dismay and death on every side. At length starvation threatened the inhabitants. All the animals in the menagerie were eaten. Horses, dogs, cats, and rats furnished eagerly-coveted food for the famishing people. Midwinter came. Fuel was all consumed, and the people began to burn their furniture. Oil gave out. The city was in darkness. By the 13th of January, 1871, there was no horse-meat left in the market. Cats brought four dollars each, dogs one dollar and a half a pound, and rats one dollar a pair!

The storm of shot and shell grew thicker and more terrible. Every hour of resistance was only submitting to helpless massacre. On the 25th of January Jules Favre sought an interview with Count Bismarck, the Prussian premier, at Versailles to propose terms of surrender. Bismarck consented to an armistice of twenty-one days. In February the National Assembly of France met, preliminaries of peace were ar-

ranged, and on the 1st of March the Prussian troops entered Paris.

Peace was finally concluded at Frankfort-on-the-Main May 10, 1871. By the terms of this treaty France was compelled to surrender to Prussia* Alsace and a part of Lorraine, and to pay as indemnity for the war one thousand million dollars!

It has been estimated that this unfortunate war cost France ten million dollars a day.†

1871. The Mont Cenis Tunnel.

The Mont Cenis Tunnel, in the Alps between France and Italy, was begun in 1857. It is seven and a half miles long and it cost ten million dollars.

This tunnel is made through a range of rugged and almost inaccessible mountains, composed of quartz, hard schist, and compact limestone. The work of tunnelling was begun on both sides of the Alps, and the triumph in engineering was in making these two openings meet in the heart of the mountain. At first the work of excavation was done by hand, but this was soon found to be impracticable. Boring-machines were then tried, and from 1863 until the completion of the tunnel these machines were in constant and successful operation.

On Christmas-day, 1870, the two gangs of workmen, who for thirteen years had been forcing their way inch by inch through the solid rock, met face to face in the bosom of the mountain, and the Mont Cenis Tunnel was speedily completed (June, 1871).

* At the close of the war William I. of Prussia was proclaimed Emperor of Germany. He died in March, 1888, and was succeeded by his son, Frederick III., who, after a brief reign of three months, died, and was succeeded by his son, William II., the present emperor.

† Since 1871 France has been a republic. The president is now M. Sadi-Carnot, elected in December, 1887.

France has had four presidents since 1871, viz.: Thiers, 1871-1873; MacMahon, 1873-1879; Grévy, 1879-1887; Carnot, 1887.

The opening of this tunnel greatly facilitated and shortened railway travel from France to Italy.

1871. The Chicago Fire.

The nearest parallel in history to the great fire of London in 1666 was the Chicago conflagration of 1871. At the time of the fire Chicago contained a vast number of wooden buildings, and, with the exception of a single square mile, was very carelessly and badly built.

The fire broke out in a stable in the west division of the city about nine o'clock on Sunday night, October 8. Fanned by a southwest gale the flames speedily devoured the thousand or more wooden shanties, houses, and planing-mills between the fateful stable and the river, leaped the river into the south division about midnight, and advanced upon the commercial quarter of the city. The fire department fought bravely for a time, but finally succumbed before the awful sea of flame. One by one the lofty business blocks crumbled and fell. By half-past three o'clock Monday morning the flames had crossed the main branch of the Chicago River and gained a foothold upon the north division. The first building attacked was the engine-house of the water-works, although it was nearly a mile from the point where the burning brands must have crossed the river! When the people saw that the water-works were destroyed and the water-supply was cut off, they gave up their city for lost. A general stampede to the sands of the lake-shore and the prairies west of the city began. Monday night was passed by thousands of fugitives in these places of refuge. Still the fire burned on. About two o'clock Tuesday morning there came a heavy rain. The fire had by this time reached the northern limit of the city, and the rain alone prevented it from spreading into the suburban towns.

The total area burned over was nearly three and a third square miles. More than seventeen

thousand buildings were burned, and nearly one hundred thousand human beings were rendered homeless. About two hundred and fifty persons perished. The loss amounted to nearly two hundred million dollars, and yet before the lapse of *three* years Western enterprise and Eastern capital had rebuilt the city in more than her former splendor.

1872. The Alabama Claims.

During the Civil War in the United States the Southern Confederacy contracted with British ship-builders for cruisers to be employed in the Confederate service. The most famous of these ships was the "Alabama." Under the command of Admiral Semmes, of the Confederate navy, the "Alabama" left Liverpool, sailing under British colors and manned by British seamen, and began her career of piracy. During her cruise of two years she seized sixty-five merchant vessels sailing under the United States flag and destroyed cargoes worth many millions of dollars. At last she was driven into the harbor of Cherbourg, in France, by the United States steamer "Kearsarge," long in pursuit. The French government had preserved a strict neutrality during the war, and the "Alabama" was at once ordered to leave the harbor. When the "Alabama" came out into open sea her antagonist steamed up and opened fire upon her. The battle lasted over an hour, and then the "Alabama" sunk (1864).

The depredations of the "Alabama" led to serious difficulty between the United States and Great Britain. The British government at last consented to submit the dispute to arbitration, and in 1872 a tribunal of five arbitrators, representing Great Britain, United States, Italy, Switzerland, and Brazil, met at Geneva to decide upon the case. After carefully examining the claims submitted to them by the United States, the arbitrators decided that Great Britain should give the United States fifteen million five

hundred thousand dollars as indemnity for the losses sustained through the depredations of the "Alabama" and other cruisers. The money was paid the following year.

1873. David Livingstone.

David Livingstone was born near Glasgow in 1815. In his boyhood and youth he worked in the cotton-mills at Blantyre, near Glasgow. When about nineteen years of age he conceived the idea of becoming a medical missionary, and after receiving a course of instruction in theology and medicine was sent by the London Missionary Society to South Africa in 1840. He established a station at Kolobeng, more than one thousand miles north of Cape Town. There he labored among the Bechuana tribes nearly nine years, with the ever-increasing desire to advance farther into the interior, for he was convinced that there must be a fertile and well-watered territory lying beyond the Kalahari Desert, close up to whose borders the Bechuana country extends. The earliest Portuguese settlers had learned from the natives that there was a large inland body of water which they called Lake Ngami, and that beyond this lake there was a land abounding in natural wealth. But no white man had ever visited this region.

While Livingstone was waiting anxiously for an opportunity to push his researches into this unexplored country, two English gentlemen, Messrs. Murray and Oswell, to whom he had communicated his desire, came out to Africa to accompany him on a tour of exploration. Conducted by native guides, the party set out from Kolobeng on the 1st of June, 1849. After traversing three hundred miles of barren country they came upon a magnificent river called the Zouga. As they followed the course of this stream it became broader and deeper, other noble streams flowed into it, and the vegetation along its banks became more dense and luxuriant.

At last the travellers came in sight of the famed Lake Ngami, which had probably never before been gazed upon by European eyes. They remained a short time in the lake region, and then returned to Kolobeng. Livingstone received a premium from the Royal Geographical Society for his discovery. He made two more journeys to the lake region. In the second of these two expeditions, taking a more easterly direction, he discovered the great Zambezi River (1851). The region he had traversed abounded in mighty rivers and was rich in all useful products and precious commodities. Inhabiting this country was a strong, intelligent race of the true negro type. The curse of Africa was and has been until a comparatively recent date the abominable traffic in slaves. Livingstone believed that if the natives of the interior could but have a market for the productions of their country they would be encouraged to develop its rich vegetable and mineral resources and would no longer regard the traffic in human beings as the most profitable. Thus he hoped the slave-trade would die out and the first step towards the civilization of the negro would have been taken. With a spirit of self-sacrificing love towards these benighted and half-savage races, Livingstone determined that *he* would find a way to the coast and open up a highway for commerce between these interior tribes and European nations. Resolving to devote his life to this work he was compelled to part from his wife and children, who returned to England. This must have been a heavy trial, for it was very uncertain whether he would ever see them again.

In the latter part of the year 1852 Livingstone set out upon a journey to the west coast. Plunging into the unknown depths of Africa with a few native followers, he was lost to the civilized world for upward of two years. Making his way over swollen rivers, through tangled forests, encountering severe hardships and wonderful adventures, he finally reached the Portuguese settlement of St. Paul de Loanda, on

the west coast, May, 1854. When Livingstone reached Loanda, he was so weakened by the diseases he had contracted while travelling through the swamp regions that he could scarcely sit on his ox for ten minutes at a time, and he looked like a living skeleton. After resting and recruiting he left Loanda in September with the intention of finding a way to the east coast. Retracing his course for some distance he reached the Zambezi River, followed it down to the Indian Ocean, and arrived at Quilimane May, 1856, just four years from the time of his last departure from Cape Town when his wife and children sailed for England. In those four years he had crossed the continent from ocean to ocean and had travelled about nine thousand miles.

He now returned to England to make a report of his discoveries. In the seventeen years he had been abroad he had spoken English so seldom that he had almost forgotten his mother-tongue, and it was with great difficulty that he made himself understood in addressing the public meetings given in his honor. He remained in England two years, publishing an account of his travels, and then returned to Quilimane.

Accompanied by a party of scientific men, he next made a new exploring expedition up the Zambezi. In 1864 he returned to England and published an account of this expedition. In 1865 he left England for the last time, and the next year started upon his final journey into the interior of Africa,—this time in search of the sources of the Nile. He was accompanied by a party of natives and Sepoys brought from India.

Early in 1867 news arrived in Europe and America that Dr. Livingstone had been murdered by the natives. On investigation this report was believed to be untrue, and relief expeditions were sent out from England and the United States. The honor of finding the great traveller must be accorded to Mr. H. M. Stanley (sent by the proprietor of the New York

"Herald"), who reached Dr. Livingstone in October, 1871, at Ujiji, an Arab slave-trading post on the eastern shore of Lake Tanganyika. Livingstone was sick and destitute, his goods having nearly all been stolen by his rascally servants, and Stanley's arrival with abundant stores and news from the civilized world was indeed a godsend. Accompanied by Mr. Stanley Livingstone proceeded to explore the northern shore of Lake Tanganyika in search of the outlet of the lake. This he could not find, but he satisfied himself that Tanganyika was not connected with the sources of the Nile. Stanley now prepared for his homeward journey. The doctor accompanied him to Unyanyambe, and there they parted. With the last shake of the hand and the last adieu came the final parting between the old explorer and all that could represent the interest and sympathy of the world in his travels. Stanley tried to persuade the doctor to return to England to recruit his strength, which was visibly decreasing, but Livingstone was proof against these entreaties. In his journal he wrote, "My judgment said, 'All your friends will wish you to make a complete work of the exploration of the sources of the Nile before you retire.'"

After a weary waiting of five months Livingstone's heart was gladdened by the arrival of a party of men hired for him by Mr. Stanley at Zanzibar for the purpose of accompanying him upon his contemplated journey to the south in search of the ancient fountains of the Nile, mentioned by Herodotus. In August, 1872, the caravan started. Travelling southward around the southern shore of Lake Tanganyika, they came at length to Lake Bangweolo. Following the southern shore of this lake they became entangled among the marshes. The drenching rains and poisonous vapors began to tell visibly and alarmingly upon Dr. Livingstone's strength. He finally grew so ill that the party was obliged to stop at Ilala, a deserted village on the banks of a small river near the shore of the lake.

There on the 1st of May, 1873, the brave and indefatigable explorer died. He had hoped to accomplish the purpose of the expedition, which he believed was almost attained, but this hope was not realized.

Livingstone's body was rudely embalmed by his African servants, who were greatly attached to him, and amid marvellous dangers and difficulties carried by them across the country to Zanzibar, whence it was conveyed to England and buried with due honors in Westminster Abbey.

1873. Napoleon III.

Louis Napoleon, son of Louis Bonaparte,* ex-king of Holland, and Hortense Beauharnais, daughter of the Empress Josephine, was born in Paris in 1808. His early life was spent chiefly in Switzerland. When he grew to manhood—not being allowed by Louis Philippe to return to France—he joined the revolutionary army in Italy. Afterwards he settled down to a quiet literary life in Switzerland. On the death of the Duke of Reichstadt, son of Napoleon I., Louis Napoleon determined to make an effort to restore the Napoleonic dynasty in France. Having completed his plans, he went to Strasbourg in 1836 and endeavored to raise a revolt in his favor among the troops. But the attempt was unsuccessful, and Louis was arrested and banished from France. In 1840 he again resolved to try his fortunes on French soil. Landing at Boulogne with fifty friends he endeavored to win the soldiery to his standard, but, being again unsuccessful, he was arrested, tried, and condemned to imprisonment for life. In 1846 he escaped to England, where he remained until the revolution of 1848. Without fear of arrest he then returned to France, and was elected first a member of the Assembly and soon afterwards president of the French republic.

* Louis Bonaparte was one of the four brothers of Napoleon I.

But his ambition soared to greater heights. He continually disagreed with the Assembly, and it was soon evident that one or the other must be crushed. Gaining over the military, Louis caused the hostile members of the Assembly to be arrested on the 2d of December, 1851, and issued a decree dissolving the Assembly and restoring universal suffrage. The result of this dishonorable stratagem was that he was elected president for ten years. But he had not yet attained the end for which he was striving. The restoration of the empire began to be talked about, and the cry "Vive l'Empereur!" was once more heard in France. At a favorable moment, the Senate proposed to make Napoleon emperor, the people assented by their votes, and in December, 1852, Napoleon III.* ascended the imperial throne of France.

The sway of the new emperor was despotic but not unpopular, and he held his power for nearly twenty years. But the people at last became dissatisfied, murmurs were heard, and to avoid a revolution at home Napoleon sought to occupy his people with foreign war. A pretext for war against Prussia was soon found, and in 1870 hostilities between France and Prussia began. This fatal war caused Napoleon's downfall. Taken prisoner at the battle of Sedan, he was sent to the castle of Wilhelmshöhe by order of the Emperor William. He was released six months afterwards, and joined his wife, the Empress Eugénie, at Chiselhurst, England, where she had found a refuge after the overthrow of the empire. Napoleon died at Chiselhurst in 1873.

1874. Abolition of the Spanish Republic. Accession of Alfonso XII.

The refusal of the crown of Spain by Prince Leopold led the Spanish Cortes to offer it to

* The Duke of Reichstadt, son of Napoleon I., was recognized as Napoleon II., although he never reigned. He died in 1832.

Prince Amadeus, son of Victor Emmanuel of Italy. Amadeus accepted, and entered upon his duties in 1871. His reign was short and stormy. The Carlists revolted. An attempt was made to assassinate the king, and at last disgusted with his new subjects Amadeus abdicated and left the country (1873).

A republic was then proclaimed, Emilio Castelar becoming president. The Carlists of course revolted. While the infant republic was struggling against this formidable insurrection, young Alfonso, son of ex-Queen Isabella, suddenly made his appearance in Spain and was proclaimed by his friends. The republic was overthrown and monarchy restored, Alfonso becoming king with the title of Alfonso XII.*

1876. The Centennial Exhibition.

In 1871 Congress passed an act providing that an international exhibition should be held in 1876 at Philadelphia in celebration of the one hundredth anniversary of the independence of the United States. A general invitation to participate in the exhibition was extended to all nations, most of whom accepted the invitation and sent exhibits of their manufactures and productions to this great world's fair.

Fairmount Park, on the banks of the Schuylkill, was selected as the site of the celebration. The principal buildings erected were the Main Exhibition Building, the Art Gallery, or Memorial Hall, and Machinery, Horticultural, and Agricultural Halls. In addition to these structures there were nearly two hundred smaller buildings scattered artistically through the beautiful grounds. These were put up by various

* Alfonso XII. died in November, 1885, and was succeeded by his daughter, Mercedes, a mere child. The following May, 1886, Alfonso XIII. was born, and according to the Spanish law of succession, which gives males the precedence, Alfonso was proclaimed king. Maria Christina, the queen-mother, administers the government as regent during the minority of the young king.

nations, by States, and by different industries and interests as the head-quarters of their representatives.

The Exhibition was opened on the 10th of May, 1876, by the President of the United States, and closed by him on the 10th of November. It thus remained open for six months, every day of the week, Sundays excepted. During this period there were upward of ten million admissions. These visitors came from

all parts of the United States and many of them from abroad.

The Centennial Exhibition was the largest world's fair ever held. It gave foreign nations a clearer idea of the progress of the New World, and proved conclusively that the United States, by her rapid advance in the useful arts and sciences and in civilization in general, had justly earned a foremost place among the nations of the earth.

THE END.



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